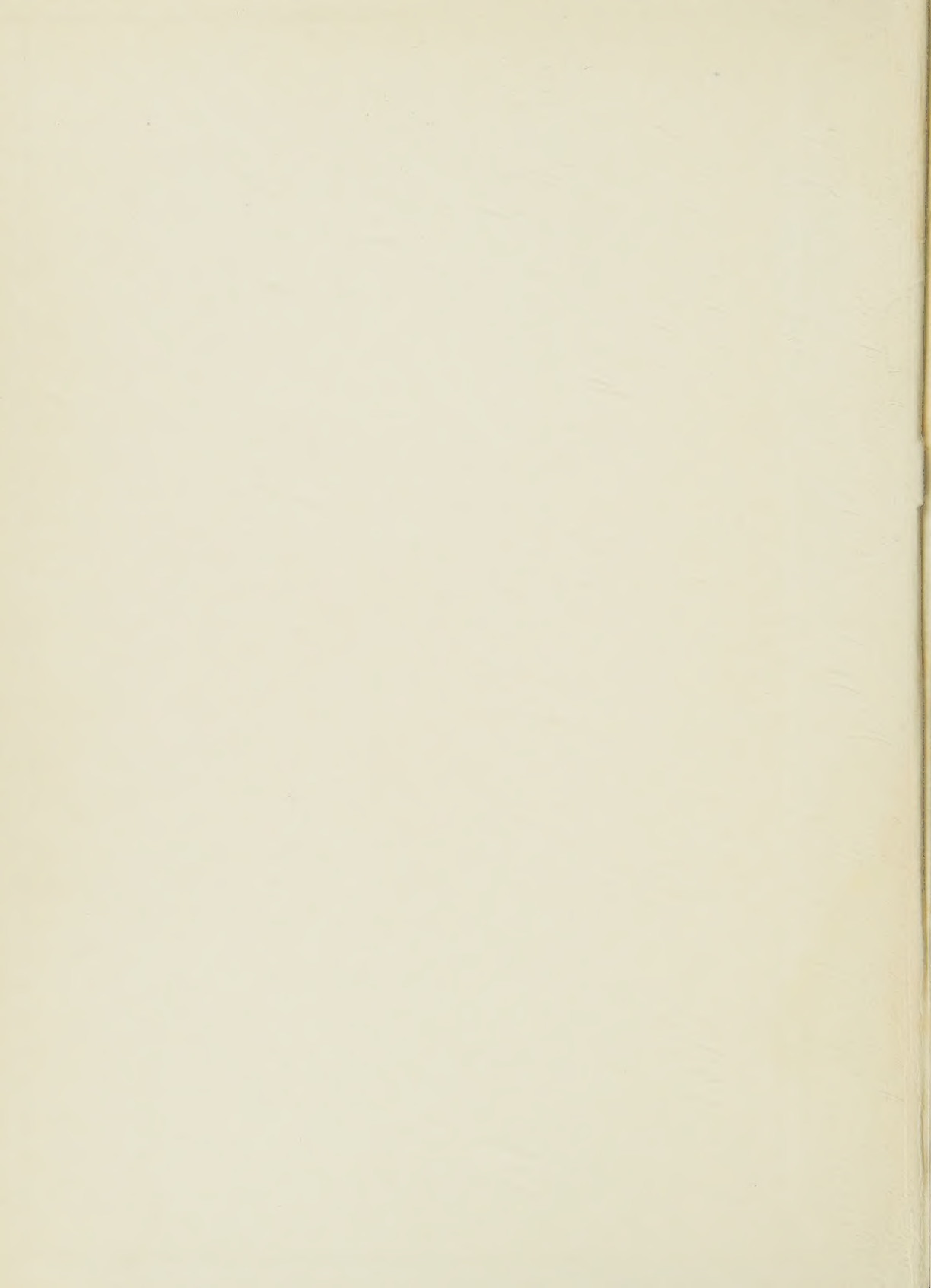


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CHIEF JUSTICE EDWARD DOUGLASS WHITE
OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

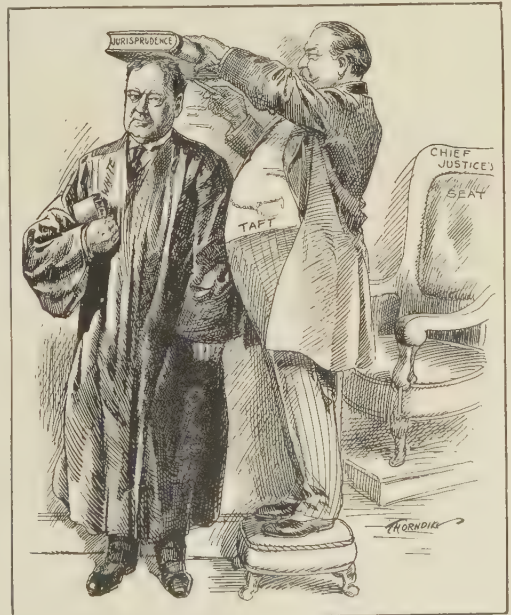
*Our New
Chief
Justice*

The appointment of Justice Edward D. White to be Chief Justice came last month as a complete surprise. President Taft had freely informed many with whom he consulted that he had definitely decided to name Justice Hughes, recently Governor of New York; and everyone was prepared to express confidence and satisfaction in the elevation of Justice Hughes. But the President's change of plan was accepted with expressions of approval so hearty and unanimous that Mr. Taft's surprise may have been as great as that which he had given the country in making the appointment. He had expected to encounter some criticism on the part of those who might have felt that a Republican President ought not to select a Southern Democrat, who had been an ex-Confederate soldier, to be Chief Justice of the United States, so soon after naming Judge Lurton, he also being a Southern Democrat who had served in the Confederate army. But nobody is sorry to have partisanship disregarded in the appointment of judges; and every one who has observed the work of the Supreme Court has felt some measure of pride in the attainments, intellectual power and broad patriotism of the Louisiana jurist. It was undoubtedly the feeling of the federal judges, whether on the Supreme bench or in the ranks of the Circuit and District judiciary, that if the Chief Justiceship was to be filled by promotion, the honor should go to one of the older men on the bench, rather than to the youngest and most recently chosen. The President's change of plan was, therefore, no slight to Justice Hughes.

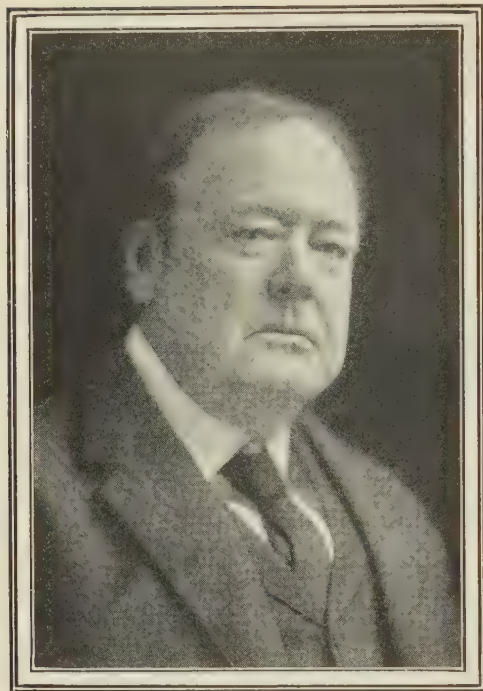
*A Great
Mind and
Personality*

The new Chief Justice was for many years on the Supreme bench of Louisiana, and for several years he was in the United States Senate. He was sixty-five years old in November. On

March 12 he will have been a member of the Supreme Court at Washington for seventeen years. He is large of physique and large of brain and heart—with such talent for the expounding of our Constitution and laws, and such gifts of clear and keen analysis, that he may well help us to keep from losing faith in the value of our most distinctive political institution. For undoubtedly there is nothing so distinctive in our system as the Supreme Court; and the authority we repose in the men who constitute this high tribunal could only be justified by intelligence, wisdom, and character on their part. Happily, the Supreme Court has justified itself through



WHEN A REPUBLICAN PRESIDENT SELECTS A CHIEF JUSTICE, HE CHOOSES A MAN WHO MEASURES UP THE TALLEST, REGARDLESS OF PARTY AFFILIATIONS
From the Press (Philadelphia)



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THE NEW CHIEF JUSTICE

the whole course of our one hundred and twenty years of constitutional experience. The questions it has to answer are fraught with great consequences; and many of them in the past have been decided by a bare majority of one vote in a tribunal of nine. Yet, for working purposes, the country has nearly always accepted in perfect good faith the majority opinion, even when that of the minority might have seemed equally wise; and there has been surprisingly little harsh assault in all our history upon either the good faith or the intelligence of the court.

As to Decisions and Their Critics Justice White himself has delivered minority opinions in some of the greatest cases that have been decided in recent years. He did not agree with his colleagues in the decision that overthrew the income tax some years ago, and his minority opinion in the Northern Securities case seemed to many of us at the time as more convincing than the opinions expressed by the majority. Interpreting a written constitution is by no means an exact, scientific thing about which trained and logical minds must necessarily agree. We have before us a period of great and critical activity on the part of our highest tribunal. We may feel confident in having a bench made up of

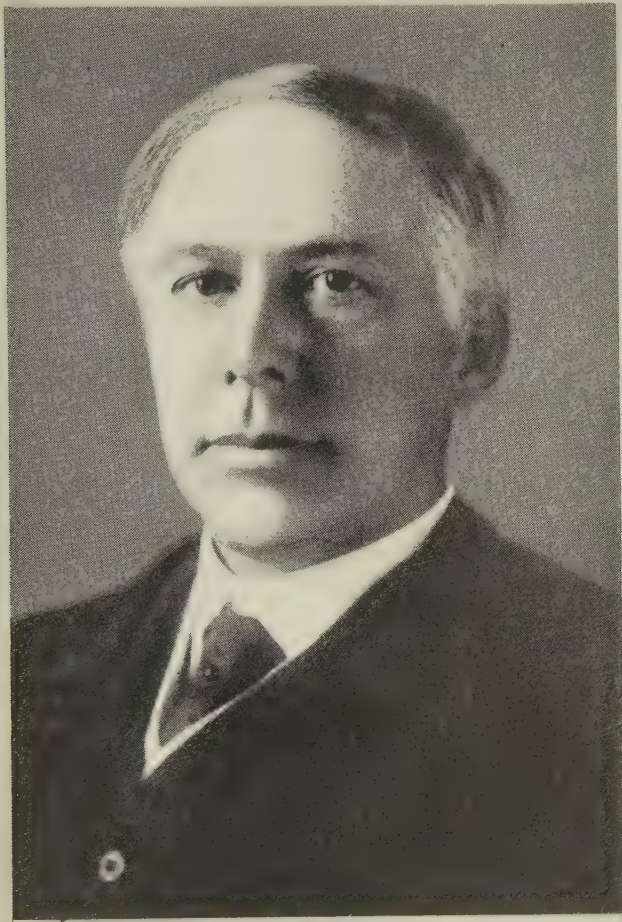
men of fidelity and conscientious industry, as well as of legal learning and intellectual power. And it will be most reassuring if these nine men can agree in their opinions upon the great cases that are soon to come before them. It is quite possible, however, that they may differ in their views. Again and again Justice White has differed from the majority of his colleagues, and his dissenting opinions have brought every resource of a powerful logician to bear upon the destructive analysis of the prevailing arguments. No outside critics of the courts have been as relentless in assault as have the dissenting judges themselves. We beg to commend to young men of intelligence, whether lawyers or not, the practice of reading Supreme Court opinions—particularly when, as in the Northern Securities case, the dissenting opinions are expressed in language at least as convincing as the opinions of the majority.

*The Bench
and
the Citizen*

It is seldom necessary to criticize judges personally, nor yet to speak disparagingly of their decisions; but it is always proper to attempt to follow their reasoning. And it is highly commendable in American citizens to discuss to the best of their ability all the "pros and cons" that the lawyers and courts themselves raise in dealing with public issues. There is no better schooling than this in our system of government. In our State and minor courts we often have men lacking in professional training, and sometimes lacking in moral character. Such men should be criticized ruthlessly. Far from its being wrong to watch the judges and criticize their work, it is a very praiseworthy practice and one which, happily, must result in reassurance as regards the equipment of most of the men in the high seats of justice.

*Justices
Van Deuanter
and Lamar*

The Senate naturally confirmed without delay the promotion of Justice White. The other two appointments to the highest bench were also within a few days approved without a single dissenting voice. When Congress assembled on December 5, it was supposed that the President would be ready to send in the judicial appointments without delay. He had waited, however, to confer with a large number of Senators and other public men, and the appointments were made after consideration of a long list of names of lawyers and judges regarded as worthy of the highest judicial rank. The three vacancies on the bench were caused by the deaths of Justice Brewer



JUSTICE WILLIS VAN DEVANTER, OF THE SUPREME COURT

and Chief Justice Fuller, and the retirement on account of illness of Justice Moody. One of these vacant seats had been filled by the appointment of Governor Hughes of New York, who took his place on the bench in November. The other two are now filled by the choice of Judge Willis Van Devanter, who is promoted from the United States Circuit bench, and Judge Joseph R. Lamar, of Georgia. Judge Van Devanter, who is about fifty-one years old, has long been identified with the new State of Wyoming. He was its Chief Justice while it was still a Territory, and remained in that position after it became a State. He was brought to Washington by President McKinley, who gave him an important post in the office of the Attorney-General, and he was made a United States Circuit Judge by President Roosevelt. Western lawyers who know him well regard him as worthy of his new honor. Justice Lamar—

whose name indicates his connection with a well-known Southern family once before represented on the highest bench—has had some years of service in the Supreme Court of the State of Georgia, and is a man of such recognized strength of mind and character that his choice for the Federal bench is regarded as well deserved.

*The Court
as it
Stands*

Of the nine members of the present bench, Mr. Taft has already named four (Lurton, Hughes, Van Devanter, Lamar). Justices Holmes and Day were appointed by President Roosevelt. Justice McKenna was named by President McKinley. Justice White was appointed by President Cleveland. Justice Harlan, who will be seventy-eight years of age on June 1, was appointed by President Hayes thirty-three years ago. Justice Harlan keeps a mind of remarkable vigor for a man of his

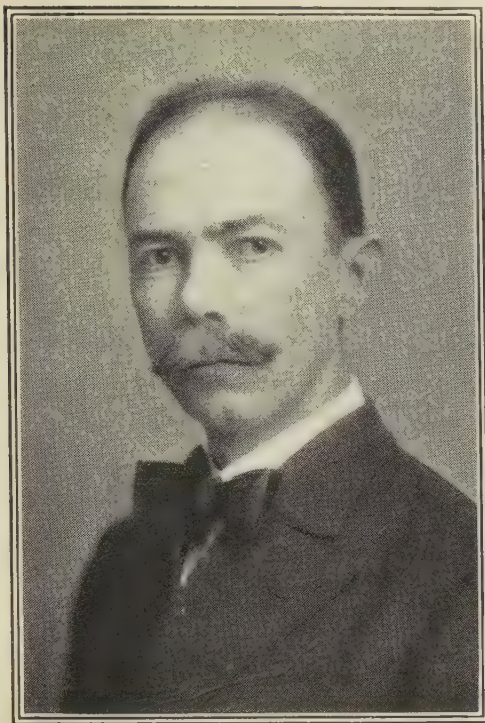


JUSTICE JOSEPH R. LAMAR, OF THE SUPREME COURT

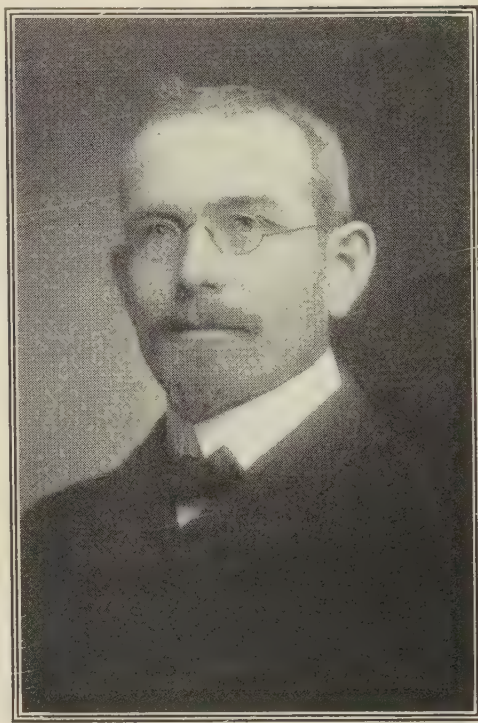
advanced years. The next in age on the bench is Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, who will be seventy in a few weeks, but whose mind is as fresh and active as it ever was, and who seems to have inherited from his father those gifts of mental elasticity and youth that are not affected by the passing years. Before this tribunal as thus reconstituted, with a man of superb talents for Chief Justice and four new members of experience and power, a number of great cases are to be tried in the early future, and the business methods of this country must for a long time be affected by the results of these appeals to our court of last resort.

*Great Cases
to be
Decided* We are to have in the immediate future a hearing of the arguments in the appealed Standard Oil and Tobacco cases. It will be remembered that these great suits had been argued

before the court in 1909, but that they were regarded as so important that a full bench was desired, and a rehearing was ordered after Justice Brewer's death. A recent decision by the United States Circuit Court at Philadelphia, in the Government's case against the anthracite-carrying roads, will also be appealed by the Department of Justice to the Supreme Court. The Government's object was to break up the so-called anthracite monopoly. The Philadelphia decision sustains only a part of the Government's case. The Philadelphia judges have granted an injunction against the Temple Iron Company, which is the organization through which the anthracite roads have regulated the output and prices of coal. It is thought by Government officials that the National Packing Company, which bears a like relation to the great cattle-buying and packing-houses of Chicago and the West,



HON. C. C. M'CHORD, OF KENTUCKY



HON. B. H. MEYER, OF WISCONSIN

TWO NEW MEMBERS OF THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION

will be restrained in a similar fashion. The Government is about to proceed against the combination of electrical companies that is said to control the greater part of the business of providing electrical machinery and appliances. This situation is said to turn upon the control of certain patents.

*Law and its
Relation to
Business*

Thus we are to witness a greater range of activity in the enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust law than at any previous time. And we are to have those sweeping and conclusive interpretations of this law that the courts have not hitherto had the opportunity to give us. President Taft, in his message to Congress, takes the ground that it will be better to have these pending cases prosecuted, and the law interpreted, before trying to amend the Sherman law in any way. He still holds to the desirability of a federal corporation act, but expects no immediate steps in that direction. There is no other commercial nation whose great business enterprises are under the ban of the law, or in the throes of prosecution or of hostile investigation at the hands of the Government. Whether our existing laws are wise or unwise, therefore, it is very

important to have them so interpreted that the managers of industrial and transportation companies may know of a certainty whether or not they are lawbreakers. Business corporations of national scope ought to be under national regulation. In so far as they are doing business properly they ought to be protected and encouraged. It will be a great relief to have pending cases brought to a conclusion, and the expected prosecutions pushed rapidly and sent up to the highest court for decision. It is probable that Chief Justice White and his learned associates can render the country no better service than to focus their energies, in so far as possible, upon these great business cases. They must lay down guiding principles for the lower courts, and rules of conduct for the officers and legal counselors of our railway and industrial corporations. Their findings will be awaited with intense interest.

*The Men Who
Superintend
Railroads*

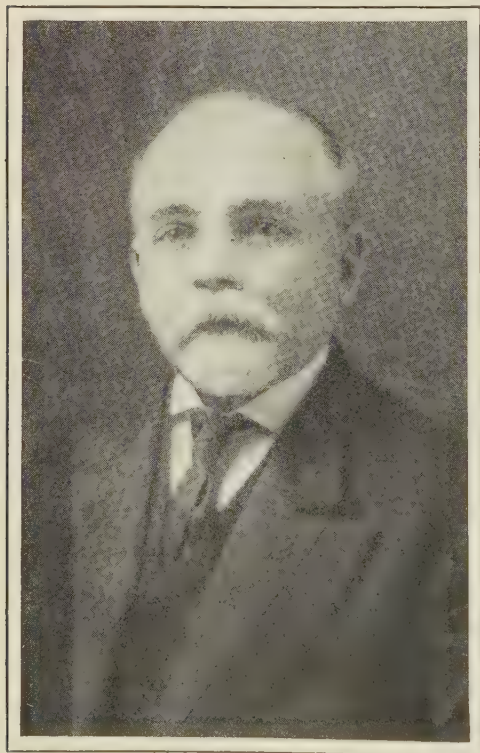
The reorganizing of the Interstate Commerce Commission is of more immediate interest to our business world than the creation of the new Court of Commerce and the naming of its five judges. Chairman Knapp, who has served



FOUR JUDGES OF THE NEW COURT OF COMMERCE

for nearly twenty years as a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission, has been made a member of the new Commerce Court, and Mr. Cockrell, of Missouri, retires by rea-

son of age (he is in his seventy-seventh year). The two vacancies in the Commission have been filled by the selection of Prof. B. H. Meyer, of the University of Wisconsin, and Mr. C. C. McChord, of Kentucky. Professor Meyer had recently been made a member of the special commission, headed by President Hadley of Yale, on the regulation of railroad stock and bond issues. Mr. LaFollette's governorship of Wisconsin led to the creation of an extraordinarily capable State commission for railway regulation, and Professor Meyer, as a member of that commission and a writer on railway economics, is already a man of wide reputation. Mr. McChord has served for some years on the Kentucky railway commission. These new members will be qualified to join intelligently in the great pending work of the Interstate Commerce Commission, inasmuch as they have doubtless followed closely the hearings on the question of increasing railway rates.



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HON. MARTIN A. KNAPP

(Presiding Judge of the Court of Commerce)

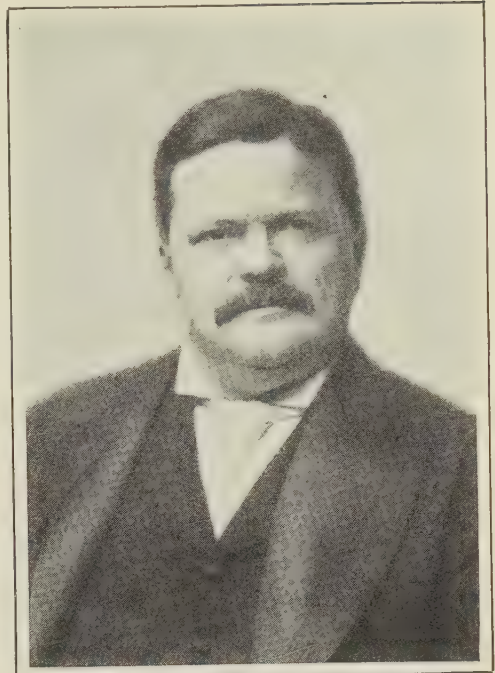
It remains to be seen whether or not the creation of a special federal court for commerce cases is a valuable innovation. Martin A. Knapp, of New York, becomes the presiding judge. John Emmett Carland, a federal district judge of South Dakota, and Robert Woodrow Archbald, a federal district judge of Pennsylvania, are appointed to this new court, and the other two members of it are William H. Hunt and Julian William Mack. Mr. Hunt, before he became Secretary (afterwards Governor) of Porto Rico, had filled political and

*The
Commercial
Court*

judiciary offices in Montana. President Roosevelt made him a United States District Judge and President Taft, last January, made him a member of the new Customs Court. Few men have ever held as many different legal and judicial offices as Mr. Hunt. Mr. Mack for a good many years has been a professor of law, first at the Northwestern University and afterwards at the University of Chicago. He has recently held several judicial positions in Chicago and is eminently worthy of his new honors. The object of the Commerce Court is to relieve the federal judiciary at large of a special class of cases, and also to secure prompt disposal of railway and similar questions at the hands of a tribunal thoroughly versed in every phase of interstate commerce and law.

Not the least interesting of Mr. Taft's appointments last month was that of the Hon. Frederick W. Lehmann, of St. Louis, as Solicitor-General of the United States. Mr. Lehmann is this year president of the American Bar Association, and his professional reputation is so high that if Mr. Taft had appointed him to the Supreme bench there would have been general approval from the lawyers of the country. Mr. Taft was once Solicitor-General himself, and he regards the office as of immense importance, especially at this time when great cases are to be argued before the Supreme Court. Mr. Bowers had brought a great reputation from Chicago, and it was supposed that Mr. Taft might sometime elevate him to the Supreme bench. His death was a serious loss, and Mr. Taft fills the vacancy by the appointment of another lawyer of the Mississippi Valley of equally high standing. Mr. Hoyt, who had been Solicitor-General in the Roosevelt administration, was chosen by Secretary Knox as the Counselor of the State Department, and his death a few weeks ago marks another vacancy in the group of talented lawyers who have been giving the Government their devoted service. It is the business of the Solicitor-General to argue the Government's cases before the Supreme Court, the Attorney-General seldom having the time to appear in court in view of his cabinet duties and varied responsibilities. President Taft, in securing Mr. Lehmann, has brought to the Government's aid, in the handling of the great cases about to be tried in the near future, as able a lawyer and as brilliant an orator as his profession affords. It means, in part, that the administration is quite in earnest about law-enforcement.

*Mr. Lehmann as
Lawyer for the
Government*



Photograph by Strauss

HON. F. W. LEHMANN, OF ST. LOUIS
(The new Solicitor-General)

*Mr. Brandeis
and the
Railroads*

The wide and active discussion last month of the Interstate Commerce Commission's hearings on the question of increased freight rates centered on the argument of Mr. Louis J. Brandeis, counsel for the shippers, that the railroads could get the additional income they need by the simple method of introducing modern scientific methods of management. In the past decade a new profession has been created on this theory that scientific study of the smallest details and of the entire operations of a factory or other business concern can show the way to great economies in cost, prevent waste and increase output. There are now eminent consulting engineers who are engaged by industrial heads to study their establishments from top to bottom with a view to finding by scientific study the methods of working, accounting and handling labor which will improve on the old traditional habits. Some extraordinary results have been attained. One frequently cited is in the trade of bricklaying, where it is said that by scientifically analyzing and simplifying the movements made by the bricklayer, efficiency, as measured by the output of a man in a given time, was increased 200 per cent. Mr. Brandeis, to support his widely quoted statement that the railroads could



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

MR. LOUIS BRANDEIS, REPRESENTATIVE OF THE SHIPPERS IN THE RATE HEARING

save \$1,000,000 a day through scientific improvements in industrial practice, put a number of the foremost of these professional "business economizers" on the witness stand. It was shown that certain railroads, for instance the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé, had already gone far into these modern methods of industrial economy with good results. Some of the points brought out by Mr. Brandeis in the testimony given before the Interstate Commerce Commission are clearly summarized in the article by Mr. Benjamin Baker which we publish on page 80 of this number. Our own understanding of the attitude of organized labor on the subject of the bonus system does not wholly coincide with Mr. Baker's, as will appear.

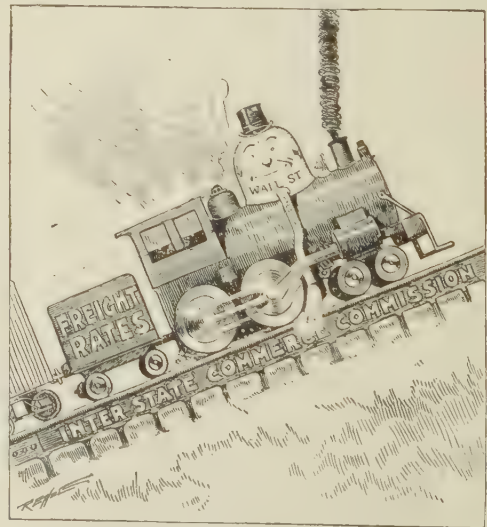
Can the
Railroads
Wait?

There are two practical difficulties in Mr. Brandeis' prescription for the railroads when it is considered as a panacea for their imminent weakness in net income. It is undoubtedly true of any great field of industrial activity that there is always room for improvement in industrial efficiency, and we are inclined to think that in the case of certain railroads, at least, there

is unusually large opportunity to prevent waste. But, in the first place, the adoption of the modern scientific methods of management is apt to amount, in the end, to a revolution in the details of organization, and such a revolution takes a long time to accomplish, if it is to have a helpful result. Some mistakes are always made at first, and it takes months, or, in such vast and complex organizations as a great railroad, it may take years, to get the thing done and in good running order. Now the problem before the railroads of showing such net income as will enable them to do their necessary financing is felt to be immediate.

Labor
Union
Opposition

A second difficulty in the way of using the so-called modern scientific methods of reorganizing railway operation lies in the attitude of organized labor. Two essential factors in the scientific reorganization of a shop or other industrial plant are standardization, involving high specializing of processes, and some sort of bonus system to stimulate workers to make the best use of the new method. Organized labor is flatly against specialization, and apparently not agreed on the bonus system. Mr. John Mitchell discussed the matter very frankly in relation to the arguments of Mr. Brandeis. Specialization, Mr. Mitchell claimed, tends to monotony in the worker's life and brain atrophy. It is not denied that costs can often be reduced and output increased by limiting a given worker's attention to a most restricted fraction of the



MAYBE THE TRACK WILL BE SANDED!
From the Pioneer-Press (St. Paul)

whole process of manufacture. But organized labor says the price of such industrial efficiency, paid for in the mental health of the worker, is too great. So, also the bonus system is opposed, on the ground that, whatever its immediate economic results, it "speeds up" the worker too fast. Mr. Mitchell contends that while, for a time, the worker may be stimulated to a greater output by the lure of greater rewards, there comes a time when the "speeding up" tells on him, and his efficiency may fall back to the old level, or below it, so that, looking at his life work as a whole, he may be able to accomplish less in it and live less happily, than by the older and slower methods. However doctrinaire these claims may seem to the average progressive American mind, the fact that they are made by labor is an important answer to Mr. Brandeis' contention that all the railroads need do to bolster up their endangered credit and income is to introduce modern methods.

*Mr. Kellogg on
Federal Control
of Railways*

Would the owners of railroads and the bankers who market their securities prefer to go back to the era of rebates and cut rates? Will the federal Government ever reduce rates as low as they were in the eras of cut rates and special terms to large shippers before 1903? Such questions were vigorously put by Mr. Frank B. Kellogg to Wall Street in his recent address before the Economic Club in New York City. The speaker traced the development of the nation's transportation systems from the military highways on to the highly organized railroads, to show that from the beginning, and at all times, federal control was necessary for the life and health of the nation. To-day, railroad rates are a tax on all commerce, and equal opportunity for all citizens demands that rates shall be uniform. Mr. Kellogg reminded his hearers that in 1872, when the States first began to exercise some control of railroad rates; in 1887, when Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act; and in 1903, when the Elkins' bill was made law, predictions of dire disaster were heard. "Yet in spite of the progressive growth and development of this control, there has been the most wonderful increase in railway construction and enterprise, and in the development of our resources in all industries, ever known in history. Railway securities have become more generally an investment of the people, more stable and more profitable." Mr. Kellogg showed clearly the difficulty of obtaining uniform action from forty-six States in the con-

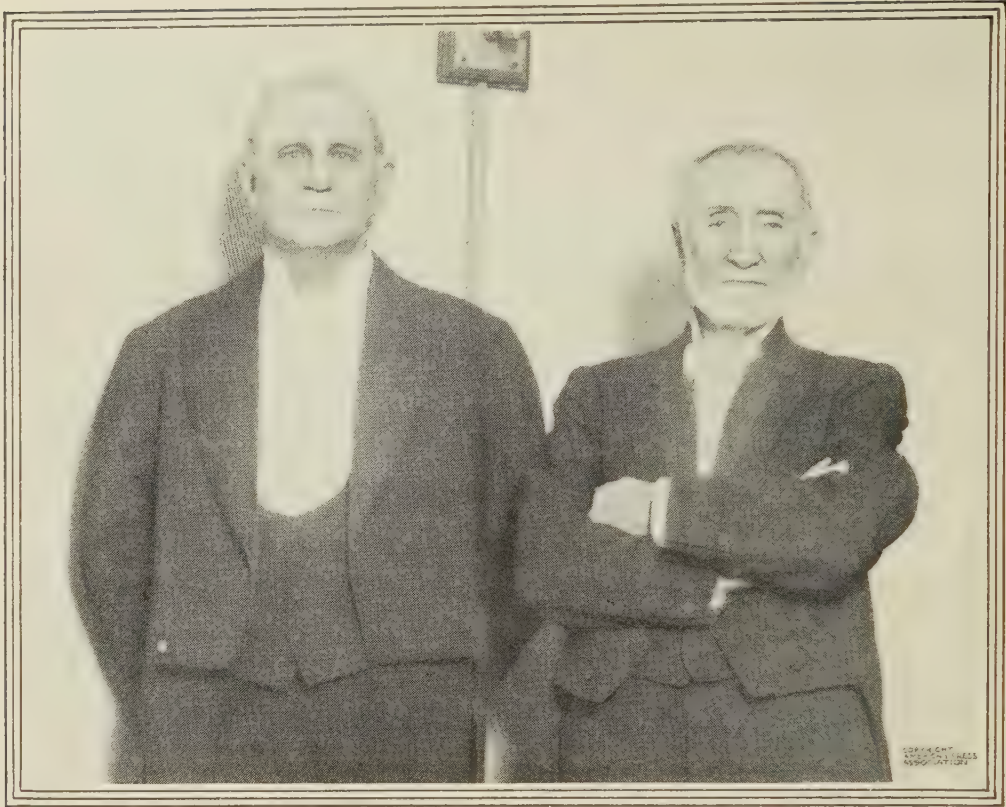
trol of railroads and other great corporations doing an interstate business, and contended strongly that it is to the interest of Wall Street as well as of the whole people "that the federal Government shall itself control the instrumentalities of interstate commerce, which can only be by it effectively regulated."

*Panama and
the
World's Fair*

The article on the Panama Canal published in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS shows convincingly that the completion of that great waterway is now a matter of less than three years' time. Beyond question, if an international exposition is to be held to celebrate the opening of the canal, there is no time to be lost in deciding on the site and beginning work on the buildings and other necessary accompaniments of a world's fair. San Francisco awaits only the action of Congress to begin this great undertaking. The money is already provided. In commenting, last month, on the voting of \$10,000,000 in bonds by the people of California, a misprint made us say that the citizens of San Francisco had subscribed \$750,000 for the project. The sum actually subscribed was about \$7,500,000 of which \$4,000,000 was raised at a mass-meeting last spring within two hours. The total fund now available for a Pacific coast exposition amounts to \$17,500,000 and the people of California do not ask the federal Government to contribute one cent to the enterprise. Quite apart from the distinctive advantages of San Francisco as an exposition site, the country has been most favorably impressed by the spirit in which the promoters of a Pacific coast exposition have gone about the work of convincing Congress and the Eastern States that a world's fair can and will be provided, by the people of "the Slope," for the celebration of an event which means, perhaps, more to the Pacific coast than to any other part of the Union. It has been shown repeatedly that in enterprises of this kind the West is abundantly able to take care of itself; and the guarantees that are now offered for a successful Panama-Pacific Exposition at San Francisco will go far to persuade the East that the Pacific coast metropolis should be selected as the site.

*New
State
Constitutions*

Conventions in the new States of New Mexico and Arizona have framed constitutions for their respective States. Both documents are unlike the famous Oklahoma constitution in that they are much briefer, but it was not to be expected that two new States of the West,



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THE PROSPECTIVE SPEAKER, AND HIS FRIEND WHO NOW WIELDS THE GAVEL

formulating constitutions at the present time, should steer clear of what, in the conservative East, is denominated radicalism. In New Mexico the initiative was rejected, but a referendum clause was included which enables 25 per cent. of the voters, on petition, to suspend a law within ninety days of a legislative session, and 10 per cent. of the voters, on petition, to submit a law passed by the last legislature to the popular vote at the next election. The Arizona constitution goes much farther. It includes both the initiative and the referendum, and also a provision for the recall of all elective officers, including judges. This last is a distinct innovation, even in the radical West. In New Mexico no distinction is to be made in the franchise, in jury duty, or in qualifications for holding office, other than State and legislative offices, on account of inability to speak English. But in Arizona all voters are required to be able to read the constitution in English, a qualification which, it is said, will deprive a considerable percentage of the State's population of the franchise. Both constitutions will be submitted to the people for ratification.

*Democrats
Looking
Forward*

When Congress assembled early in December there seemed to be more interest in the organization of the Democratic House that would meet a year later than in the business of the present session. The Democrats were determined not to throw away the fruits of their victory through lack of harmony. They were quick to agree that the Hon. Champ Clark, of Missouri, should be the next Speaker, and they were so forehanded as to plan for the selection of at least a considerable part of the Ways and Means Committee of the Sixty-Second Congress, in order to begin work on a tariff bill. Mr. Champ Clark would naturally prefer to manage the House under the established rules—not through lust of personal power but because of the need of an efficient system. It seems now, however, that the Democrats will take the appointment of committees away from the Speaker and try the plan of a Committee on Committees. Mr. Clark has agreed not to oppose this change if his Democratic colleagues prefer it. The Republicans seem now quite generally committed to the plan of a gradual



DARE HE TAKE THE DROP?
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

tariff revision, one schedule at a time; and their acceptance of the idea of a tariff commission is also quite general, although they differ widely as to the details. What the Republicans wish is, to apply the slow processes of a scientific commission and a piecemeal revision to the present Republican high-protective tariff. What the Democrats seem to want is a general overhauling and reduction of the present tariff, to give it a Democratic character in the first instance, with the commission and gradual reduction methods to be applied from a reformed starting point. The trouble with the Democratic plan is that the Payne-Aldrich tariff was made by log-rolling methods for the protection of communities and special interests; and that the numerous localities and enterprises thus benefited have no political complexion. They are just as much Democratic as they are Republican. In short, it is not going to be possible in the future to accomplish much with the tariff on the theory that it is to remain in future as in the past a distinct issue between the Republican and Democratic parties.

The
President's
Yearly Report

The Sixty-first Congress, which is to close its labors on March 4, enacted the Payne-Aldrich tariff in its special session in the spring of 1909, and accomplished a great deal of noteworthy legislation in its long regular session of last year. The appropriation bills must be

passed this year, and they require so much consideration that only a little time can be left for general legislation. President Taft's message, which was a document of unusual length, contained a great number of meritorious proposals; but it was not expected that many of them could be acted upon in the present session. The President's annual message has come to be a broad, comprehensive statement of the Government's activities and policies in all directions, and a disclosure of the varied aims and efforts of the administration. Only a very few newspapers now publish the message in full. This latest State paper of President Taft's is in fact a report to the country that ought to be widely circulated in convenient, permanent form. In clear, open print the document as prepared by the President would make a book of 150 pages. It deals with a great variety of affairs in the most useful and interesting way. The briefest allusion to its statements and suggestions would occupy a good deal of space. In his discussion of foreign affairs, the President presents a hopeful picture of progress in the paths of peace and of judicial settlement of disputes. His review of the activities of our State Department gives prominence to the fact that every country in the world has shown itself entitled to our minimum tariff rates. The prospect of special tariff arrangements with Canada is viewed in a hopeful light, and our new era of international commerce, to begin with the opening of the Panama Canal, seems to the President to require some form of Govern-



STATESMEN SEEING THINGS IN A NEW LIGHT
From the *Herald* (Washington)



THE ELEPHANT BALKS AND SAYS: "LET THE DONKEY DO IT"

(Mr. Taft would like to carry forward some important legislation, but will be disappointed)

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)

ment aid to the growth of an American merchant marine. The President's recent visit to Panama leads to a reassuring statement as to the progress of the canal work, and an explicit demand for authority to defend the canal with suitable fortifications and prepare for its commercial and naval utilization.

Mr. Wickersham's Busy Shop of Justice

It is a picture of great activity that is presented on behalf of the judiciary department. Never before in the history of the country have the law officers been so busy in so many different directions. Mr. Wickersham's vigilance, with the aid of many trained assistants, has ranged from great prosecutions under the Interstate Commerce and Sherman Anti-Trust acts, to the breaking up of "bucket shops" and the terrifying of the scoundrels who are using the mails to sell bogus stocks to small investors. Mr. Taft makes a worthy appeal for the simplifying of legal procedure and the relief of the higher courts from needless appeals. It is to be hoped that Congress will heed his request that the salaries of the higher judges be increased.

Postal Affairs

It is notable that the first of the postal savings banks, under the law passed last year, will have opened their doors on New Year's Day. Only a few post-offices will have the savings-bank

attachment at the beginning; but as soon as the system proves itself to be good, and its details are perfected in practice, it will be rapidly extended. Mr. Taft urges upon Congress the beginnings of a parcels-post system in connection with the rural-free-delivery service. The country has undoubtedly made up its mind in favor of a parcels post, and it ought to be inaugurated—at least experimentally—in the near future. It has long been evident that the Government ought to know at least the extent of the postal business that it carries on under the franking privilege. It is now proposed that all franked letters and other mail matter have a special stamp affixed, so that the Post-Office Department may keep a record of the cost and extent of the service. There are many obvious things of this kind that must be done before the Post-Office can claim to be a business organization.

The Rates on Second Class Matter

It would seem highly unwise to attempt any changes of postal rates with so few facts available as to the relationship of one part of the business to another. For many years second-class matter has been carried by the Government at one cent a pound. Under existing rates the Post-Office would be earning large profits except for the franked matter carried free and the unprofitable free-delivery services. The parcels post will make the rural delivery

self-sustaining. But even with these things as they are, the deficit is very small and with careful administration Mr. Hitchcock will have it all wiped out within six months. A proposal, therefore, arbitrarily to increase the rate on second-class matter would seem ill-advised. When such a proposal was first made by Mr. Taft, the newspapers protested vigorously and the proposition was changed to one that should distinguish between newspapers and periodicals. Mr. Taft proposed to increase the rates on periodicals without increasing those on newspapers. The postal committees of Congress, after careful study, could not recommend such a scheme. This year Mr. Taft changes his proposal entirely and suggests the possibility of weighing separately the advertising pages of magazines, leaving their reading matter to be circulated in the mails at one cent a pound while charging a higher rate for the advertising part. It is only fair to say Mr. Taft does not claim to have studied this subject, and he makes the suggestion to Congress as involving facts that are worthy of study by the Postal Committees. The truth is that from the business standpoint the Post-Office could ill-afford to discriminate against magazine advertising. No other one thing causes so many letters to be sent through the mails as the business publicity that makes use of general advertising. There are no facts in existence that would justify the placing of a higher postal rate on other periodicals than the rate that is paid by newspapers. Nor has any one as yet given us a definition by which to distinguish between the newspapers and the other periodicals. This REVIEW is in so-called "magazine" form; yet it claims to be a newspaper in the strictest sense of the word.

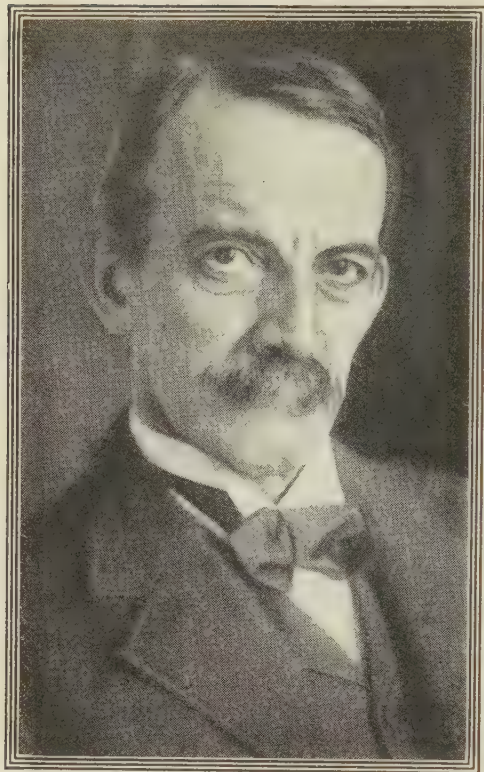
*Our
National
Defenses*

The notable administrative work of Secretary Meyer, of the Navy Department, is strongly supported in the President's message. Mr. Meyer has had a difficult task in reorganizing the bureaus of his department and he has the boldness to demand the abolition of some of our useless navy yards. He would greatly strengthen our naval base at Guantanamo, on the coast of Cuba, which commands the Caribbean Sea and the entrance to the Panama Canal. Mr. Taft is eminently right in asking Congress to give some very special recognition to the achievement of Commander Peary in reaching the North Pole. There is nothing alarmist in the President's message as respects the army and the national defenses. The simple fact is that from the

theoretical military standpoint this country is never in a defensible condition. Our coast defenses are not complete and we have not nearly enough men to handle the artillery. Our regular army is widely scattered, our militia is not effective for purposes of an immediate war, and we are, to sum it up, not one of the great military powers. The Secretary of War, Judge Dickinson, said all these things, without apology and with great clearness, in a letter transmitted to Congress last month replying to an inquiry that had been made for information as to our defenses. This reply by the Secretary was presumably prepared with the aid of General Wood and the army staff. It was at first distributed to the newspapers for publication, but afterwards recalled. It was a true statement, but, as Mr. Taft subsequently explained in a speech before the American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, there is no cause for fright. Our relations with all countries are entirely friendly. Some things it is desirable to do for better defense, and these are clearly pointed out.

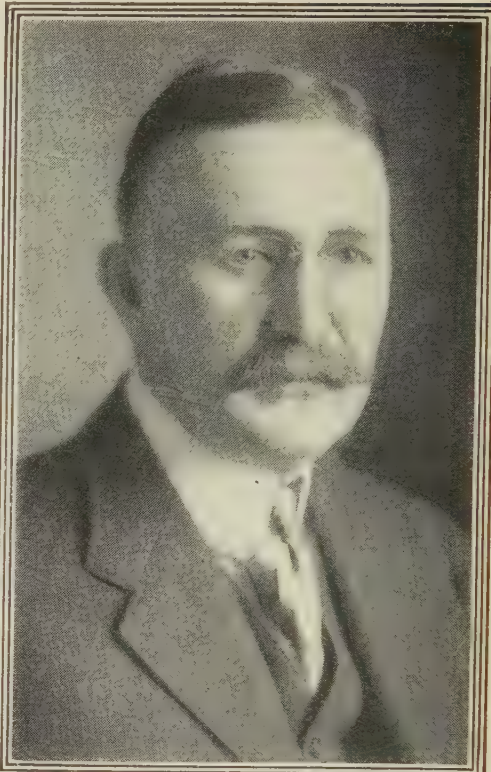
*Electing
Our
Senators*

At last, after many years of suppression in committee pigeon-holes, the proposal to amend the Constitution in such a way as to allow voters to elect United States Senators will be reported favorably to the Senate itself. The people of this country are in favor of electing their Senators. They have been trying in all sorts of ways to get around the constitutional difficulty. In a number of States we are now to witness Senatorial deadlocks where the matter ought to have been determined at the polls in November. Governor-elect Woodrow Wilson, as the people's chosen leader, has been trying to prevent the election of James Smith, Jr., to succeed Senator Kean. The voters should have had a chance to save their Governor-elect from all this bother. In the State of New York, it is a question of bringing Tammany around to consent to the election of the Hon. Edward M. Shepard to succeed Senator Depew. If it were left to the voters of the State, regardless of party, to say whether they would rather have Mr. Shepard or Mr. Sheehan they would elect Mr. Shepard by 3 to 1. But Mr. Murphy, boss of Tammany Hall, controls the majority of Democratic votes in the Legislature. A committee of the United States Senate has just now decided that it finds no improprieties in connection with the election of Senator Lorimer, of Illinois. But if the people of that State were to pass upon the



Photographs by Brown Bros., N. Y.

EDWARD M. SHEPARD



WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN

LEADING CANDIDATES FOR SENATOR DEPEW'S SEAT

question, Mr. Lorimer would have no more chance to be elected Senator than to be chosen as President Taft's successor. Very few suggested constitutional changes are clearly demanded by public sentiment; but the election of United States Senators by the people is thus demanded. Nearly all of the State offices now elective ought to become appointive, but the Senators should be elected by the whole State, as are the Governors.

The Ballinger Report and Our Resources

All of the Republican members of the joint committee of the two Houses of Congress which investigated the so-called "Ballinger-Pinchot controversy" have made a sweeping report fully exonerating Mr. Ballinger, Secretary of the Interior. This, however, does not include Mr. Madison, the Kansas insurgent, who has all along been associated with the minority members of the committee. One great good has come from this painful and protracted disagreement. It has amazingly clarified the views of public men at Washington, and of the country, upon a series of highly critical questions. Hence-

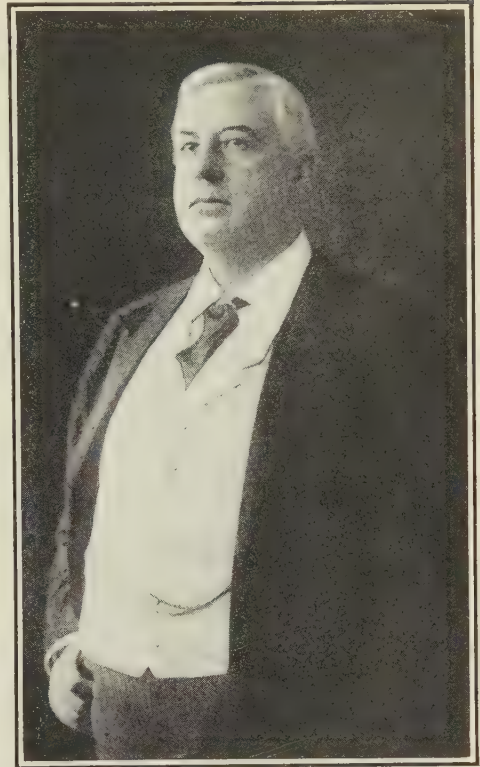
forth the Government's coal lands, including those of Alaska, are to be leased on a careful plan rather than given away for private exploitation. Oil lands and mineral lands of certain kinds are to be treated in the same way. The forest problem is intelligently grasped as never before. Mr. Ballinger today holds more advanced ground on all these matters than Messrs. Pinchot and Garfield had been able to reach three or four years ago. President Taft's recommendations are progressive, convincing, and lucid. They follow up with legal precision the great policies that Mr. Roosevelt boldly initiated but could not at first reduce to exact forms. However painfully or unjustly personal reputations may have been assailed, the great cause of national conservation has been the gainer by the dispute of the past two years. The recommendations as to specific policies presented in the majority report, like those contained in the President's message, are gratifying in a high degree. It would be useless to continue the newspaper phases of the controversy. The Cunningham claims, and similar matters, should go to the Courts.

*Population
Growth*

The announcement of the final census figures of population, early in December, caused little surprise, since the total increase for the past decade had been computed quite closely from the partial announcements made from time to time during the summer and fall. It may be said with truth that the American flag now floats over one hundred millions of people, since the total population, including Alaska and all our island possessions, is 101,100,000. We have a "continental" population, exclusive of Alaska, of 91,972,266. This represents an increase, during the past ten years, of nearly 16,000,000, or about 21 per cent. The rate of growth has not declined during the decade, although if it be compared with the rates for previous census periods, it will be found relatively small. It was greater, however, than was anticipated by the experts. The largest percentages of increase are to be found in the figures for the far Western States. California, for example, makes a showing of 60 per cent. Oregon of 62.7, and Washington of 120.4 per cent. Some of the smaller Western States made records almost as high. East of the Rocky Mountains the greatest increase was recorded for Oklahoma—109.7 per cent,—while North Dakota reached a percentage of 80.8 and Montana of 54.5 per cent.

*City
and
Country*

Among the Eastern States, those which had a rapid urban development enhanced by the growth of manufacturing interests make the best showing, while those States of the Middle West which have few cities are the States where the population has remained more nearly stationary. In the great farming State of Iowa there was even a loss of 7 per cent. during the ten years. In connection with the announcement of city populations a few months ago, we called our readers' attention to the rapid growth of population in certain of the manufacturing centers along the Great Lakes. This rate of progress was not shared, it appears, by the rural districts of the States in which these manufacturing towns are located. In most of the Middle Western States the rate was lower than on the Pacific slope, or even in the manufacturing States of the East. It is not to be inferred from these population figures that any of these Middle Western States are declining in what goes to make real prosperity. Farm lands are more valuable in Iowa to-day than ever before, and the same thing is true of Illinois and the other States of the Mis-



HON. JAMES SMITH, JR.
(Candidate for the Senate in New Jersey)

issippi Valley. In fact, the agricultural statistics gathered by the Census Bureau show an extraordinary increase in the value of farm property throughout the Middle West, and it is believed that when the statistics are compiled a like increase in the farmer's income will be indicated.

*Mr. Carnegie
and World
Peace*

The furtherance of universal peace has been a veritable passion with Mr. Andrew Carnegie for many years. It is, therefore, not surprising that he has crowned his work in this great field of human betterment by the monumental gift, announced last month, of \$10,000,000 for the promotion of international harmony. Mr. Carnegie dedicates the income of this amount, half a million a year, to such objects as, in the judgment of the trustees, shall best "work toward the speedy abolition of war between the so-called civilized nations." The gift is made in the form of a deed of trust which authorizes the trustees to incorporate. President Taft has been selected as Honorary President of the organization, and Senator Root elected temporary chairman of the Board of Trustees. In addition to Mr. Root

the best known of the twenty-seven men who have been named to administer this world task are President Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia University; Hon. Joseph H. Choate, ex-Ambassador to England; Hon. John W. Foster, ex-Secretary of State; Mr. George W. Perkins, who has made notable contributions to the cause of peace between capital and labor; Hon. Andrew D. White; Hon. Charlemagne Tower, ex-Ambassador to Russia; Hon. Oscar Straus, Ambassador to Constantinople; Dr. Eliot, formerly President of Harvard, and Mr. John Sharp Williams, Senator-elect from Mississippi.

*What It
May
Accomplish*

Mr. Carnegie does not lay down any definite lines of action, but expresses fullest confidence in the trustees, to whom the widest discretion is given. Among the suggestions of the members of the board as to the best way to proceed to carry out Mr. Carnegie's ideas are: (1) A scientific study of the cost of war, showing its effect upon business and society; (2) a codification of international law; (3) the formation of an arbitral court of justice at The Hague from which there will be no appeal, and the scientific study of "those uneasy spots underlying international relations all over the world that make war a possibility." Mr. Carnegie's achievements in furthering international peace are many. He is now President of the New York Peace Society, Treasurer of the Inter-Parliamentary Union; member of the International Conciliation Society, the International Law Society and the American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes. He has already given \$1,750,000 for a Palace of Peace to be erected at The Hague and \$750,000 toward the meeting place of the Bureau of the Pan-American Union completed last year in Washington. Some years ago he gave the Peace Palace at Cartago, Costa Rica, where the Central American nations might meet and reason together. It will be interesting to note, in passing, the fact that the Nobel Peace Prize for 1910 has been bestowed not upon an individual, but upon an institution, the *Bureau International de la Paix* (the International Peace Bureau) at Berne, Switzerland. This institution, founded in 1891, is the clearing house for the principal pacific organizations of the world. It is directed by a commission of thirty-five members from all nations, and aims to supply any interested association or individual in any country with printed information relative to all efforts toward world harmony.

*A Public-
Minded
Citizen*

The appointment of Mr. George W. Perkins as one of the trustees of Mr. Carnegie's new peace fund coincides in point of time with two or three other matters which have caused Mr. Perkins' name to appear in the newspapers. One of these was the endorsement by the voters of the State of New York of the proposal submitted to them at the last election to authorize a bond issue of \$2,500,000, for the sake of carrying out the great park scheme made possible by certain private gifts. Mr. Perkins, far more than any one else, had been instrumental in securing Mrs. Harriman's noble gift of many thousands of acres of park lands, together with several million dollars from other private donors to connect the Harriman lands with the northward extensions of the Palisades Park. A number of years ago, when everybody wished to preserve the Hudson Palisades from destruction at the hands of quarrymen, but could invent no way to bring the thing to pass, it was Mr. Perkins who found the way, secured the coöperation of the States of New York and New Jersey, and brought under the control of the Palisades Park Commission the western shore of the Hudson River for many miles. Mr. Perkins from the beginning has been the president of this commission, which has made a model record.

*His Retirement from
Wall Street*

He announced last month that on January 1 he would retire from the banking firm of J. P. Morgan & Co. in order to have more time to give to public service. As chairman of the finance committee of the United States Steel Corporation, Mr. Perkins some years ago put into effect a system under which employees of the company may advantageously buy shares of stock; and in other companies with which he is connected Mr. Perkins has also introduced the principle of profit-sharing. He wishes to do still more in future to promote plans that may help to harmonize the relations of capital and labor. It is not perhaps very widely known how active a part Mr. Perkins played in the establishment of the new government Department of Commerce and Labor, and the creation of the Bureau of Corporations. No other man in this country has done so much as Mr. Perkins to secure a change in corporation methods from secrecy to publicity. Nor has any other man done so much as he to bring business men into the state of mind that has prepared them for the federal incorporation of great industrial and transportation com-



MR. GEORGE W. PERKINS, OF NEW YORK

panies. He is setting an example that might well be followed in their respective communities by many other successful, public-spirited business men. He is quoted in an interview as having said:

I have long felt that it is not wise to leave all our public affairs to politicians, and that business men of sufficient leisure and means should for patriotic reasons, if for no other, give their attention to great public problems, and I intend in

future to give much more time than I have to the solution of them, especially to the reconciliation between capital and labor.

Many of our best qualified young men are taking a commendably active part in politics. What we particularly need is that men approaching middle life should in this country, as in Europe, lessen their business cares and give more of their thought and energy to the social and general welfare of the community.



MRS. MARY BAKER G. EDDY
(The only authorized portrait)

*The Founder
of Christian
Science*

The death at Boston, on December 4, of Mrs. Mary Baker G. Eddy, in her ninetieth year, brought an earthly end to a remarkable career. Of no other American woman can it be said that her adherents were numbered by hun-

dreds of thousands, who were as loyal at the moment of her death as they had been at any period of her life. Mrs. Eddy was known as the founder of Christian Science, a religious cult which had made great headway in this country in a time when it had come to be thought that only the well-tried faiths could appeal to thinking men and women. To the confusion of the wise, Christian Science made thousands of converts in the ranks of the Christian churches. It made eager propagandists of some of the most earnest and devoted leaders of those churches. Unquestionably the practice of its teachings helped to make many sick people well and brought to many well people a new gospel of hope. Under Mrs. Eddy's leadership, these people were gathered in prosperous and enthusiastic churches throughout the country. It is not to be supposed that Mrs. Eddy's death will cause these organizations to dwindle and decline, even though the growth in coming years should be less rapid than in the founder's lifetime. Some means will be found to continue the propagation of the faith, and just at this moment the country is keenly interested in the men who are managing the temporal affairs of the church during this critical period. The portraits of some of them appear on the opposite page. The first group of believers in Christian Science, known as Mrs. Eddy's "students," was formed thirty-five years ago. The number of communicants at the



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CARRYING MRS. EDDY'S BODY TO THE TOMB



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CALVIN A. FRYE, FOR MANY YEARS MRS. EDDY'S PERSONAL REPRESENTATIVE

present time is in dispute. Two years ago the organizations were then in existence. Some "Mother Church" reported 45,000 members, estimates have placed the total number of and it was stated that about 1000 other church adherents at 300,000 and others even higher.



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SOME DIRECTORS AND LEADERS OF THE "MOTHER CHURCH OF CHRIST, SCIENTIST"

(From left to right: Gen. Henry M. Baker, William Rathvon, Irving Tomlinson, Archibald McLellan, Calvin A. Frye, Clifford Smith, Adam H. Dickey)



THE UNREST IN EUROPE, AS SEEN BY AN AMERICAN ARTIST

(Reproduced from the cartoon by Balfour-Ker in the *Sphere*, London)

*A Restless
World in
1910*

Signs of restlessness and change indicating the instability of many of the world's long-established political and social institutions have marked human progress during the year just closed. There have been none of the more violent political overturns. Even the revolution in Portugal was a comparatively quiet and bloodless affair. The changes and tendencies begun in 1910, however, as well as the quieter achievements of peace and fraternity among nations, promise to be as far-reaching in their effects as some of the more spectacular and dramatic upheavals of other years. Arbitration has scored more than one memorable triumph. And yet, in the main, as we have already remarked, unrest has characterized the year's progress. The cartoon at the head of this page graphically illustrates this tendency.

*Unrest
in
Latin-America*

We have long been accustomed to insurrections in Latin-America, so often and so inadequately termed revolutions. The year 1910 had its quota of these outbreaks. Some of them, however, have really settled some disputed things. Arbitration awards growing out of differ-

ences of opinion approaching the stage of actual war between Peru, Chile, Ecuador and Colombia have gone far toward fixing permanent boundary lines in southern and western South America. A mutiny, begun late in November, among the seamen on several Brazilian warships in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, called the attention of the world to the backward condition of management in the Brazilian navy, and resulted in acknowledgment by the government of the necessity for certain reforms. During the early days of the year just closed, Brazil went through the throes of an unusually exciting presidential campaign. There was much bitterness and some bloodshed. It finally took a Commission of Inquiry to determine who was elected, Marshal Hermes da Fonseca or his rival, Dr. Ruy Barbosa. In our issue for October we printed a graphic account of "real presidential politics" in Brazil, with some description of the character and career of Marshal Fonseca, the President-elect. After a tour of Europe, during which, from the steps of the palace in Lisbon, he witnessed the Portuguese revolution, Marshal Fonseca returned to his native country, and was duly

inaugurated on November 15. Almost all the South American nations, and also Mexico, celebrated the centenary of their independence last year.

*Conferring
over
difficulties*

The fourth Pan-American conference held at Buenos Aires in June and July was a dignified international event of world importance, and could not fail to make for common understanding among the peoples of the American continents. We hope, at an early date, to present to our readers an article by one of the American delegates to the conference showing the spirit that animated the representatives there gathered, and giving American readers some idea of the marvelous intellectual, artistic and material advance which has been made during recent years by the people of the Latin-American countries. The decision of the Arbitration Court at The Hague in the famous Orinoco case, rendered in October last, established an important principle in international arbitration for which the United States has long been contending. It annulled the award of the umpire made some years ago, and declared that the amount of damages granted the American claimants against Venezuela was too small. It is not the victory for the American contention that is noteworthy; it is the assertion of the right, on the part of the tribunal at The Hague, to review protested decisions. This august board of arbitration at the Dutch capital is becoming more and more a real world court.

*Panama
and Cen-
tral America*

At the very threshold of the North American continent, where Uncle Sam is approaching the last stages of the work on his vast enterprise of digging the Panama Canal, the little Republic of Panama has had an exciting election. The campaign was somewhat embittered by the insistent reports that the United States contemplated interference in case the President chosen was not acceptable to the State Department at Washington. Our friends in Panama were reassured, however, by the repudiation of any such intention on the part of our government, and Dr. Pablo Arosemena was elected First Vice President, succeeding, last month, to the full title of President upon the death of Dr. Obaldia. There has been civil war in Nicaragua for more than two years. The long-drawn-out struggle between the adherents of Dr. Madriz, officially elected to succeed the deposed Zeláya, and General Estrada; Secretary Knox's vigorous denunciation of Zeláya's part in the execution of Cannon

and Groce; the eventual triumph of General Estrada and his election to the Presidency; and the breaking out anew of civil war, during the past few weeks, in the distracted Central American republic—all these are matters of the history of a twelvemonth. An agreement was made in the late summer between Thomas C. Dawson, special American commissioner, and the Nicaraguan cabinet, to the effect that General Estrada, who on the first day of the present month becomes constitutional head of the republic, is to be maintained in the Presidency for at least two years so that he may have a chance to bring about promised reforms, notably the abolition of the corrupt concession system. This permitted the maintenance of monopolies in the necessities of life and was the real cause of the revolution. In July, 1912, there will be another popular election for President.

*The
Insurrection
in Mexico*

Mexico has been celebrating her Centennial during the year just past. The festivities at the capital city in commemoration of the anniversary of Mexican independence and the eightieth birthday of President Diaz made an event of world interest. Soon after the visitors had departed, however, from the capital there broke out at various points of the republic a number of riots and armed protests against what the enemies of Diaz have called the despotism of the Mexican Czar. A series of insurrectionary movements followed, last month, upon the demonstration against Americans at various points throughout Mexico. We have already pointed out in these pages that there never was any real danger of serious trouble between the United States and Mexico over the lynching, in Texas, of a Mexican who had shot and killed an American woman. The proper legal proceedings are now being taken for the trial and conviction of the lynchers, and the feeling between Mexico City and Washington is, as it always has been, of the most cordial and friendly kind. The occasion, however, has been used by the many enemies of the Diaz régime to precipitate an insurrection which rapidly assumed the proportions of civil war. Revolutionary leaders, prominent among them being Dr. Francisco Madero, organized armies of formidable strength, particularly in the northern states of Chihuahua and Coahuila. A number of pitched battles took place in those states in the middle of last month, resulting, in the main, in victories for the government forces. The severe repressive measures, however, of the adminis-

tration served only to arouse more general opposition. It is regrettable that these disturbances should have taken place so soon after the formal inauguration, on December 1, of General Diaz as President for the eighth consecutive term.

Mexican Progress Slow but Sure

It is probable that popular uprisings in Mexico are more frequently due to local mismanagement than to actual complaints against the central government. It was reported, late last month, that a delegation of the best known public men of the nation had called upon President Diaz and reminded him of this fact. They further advised him, in the interest of humanity and for the fame of his last years, to concede the just claims made by the disaffected. There is an increasing demand among Mexicans of all classes for more power in the Congress; a really independent judiciary; popular education; the breaking up of the present system of large land holdings and a general observance of constitutional rights which in Mexico are

as liberal as anywhere. The part of the United States is clear. Duty to ourselves and to our neighbors both imperatively demand that this country shall not foster or tolerate hostile movements within its borders. Texas must not be made a base of operations nor even a plotting-ground against Mexico. Considerations of self-interest as well as of altruism impel us to encourage and support the Mexican government in its work of suppressing lawlessness, of satisfying the demands of the progressive element among its people, and of cultivating stability at home and friendship abroad.

An Apathetic Election in England

After the general elections of last January, a prominent English Liberal leader remarked that his party was disappointed as to the present and uncertain as to the future. His views found echo in the speeches and printed utterances of the Unionists. We quoted this opinion at the time. So little change has been accomplished by the pollings just held that our summing up of the results a year ago fits the present situation exactly. We said in this REVIEW for March last:

The only political camp in Great Britain in which there is any degree of elation over the results of the general election, is that of the Irish Nationalists. The Liberal Ministry, in appealing to the country, asked and hoped for a popular verdict which would return them to power with a good working majority. The figures of the final count, however, give them but one vote more than their Unionist opponents, and make them absolutely dependent for the enactment of their extensive program into law upon the Labor members and the Nationalists. These two groups, it is true, almost always vote the Liberal way, or, to put it in other words, never vote with the Conservatives. Mr. Asquith, however, will have to satisfy these gentlemen in every case before the Liberal program can be carried to victory.

These words fit the present situation almost exactly. One thing only is certain. The voters of the British Isles hold just about the same opinions as they did a year ago on the general political situation.

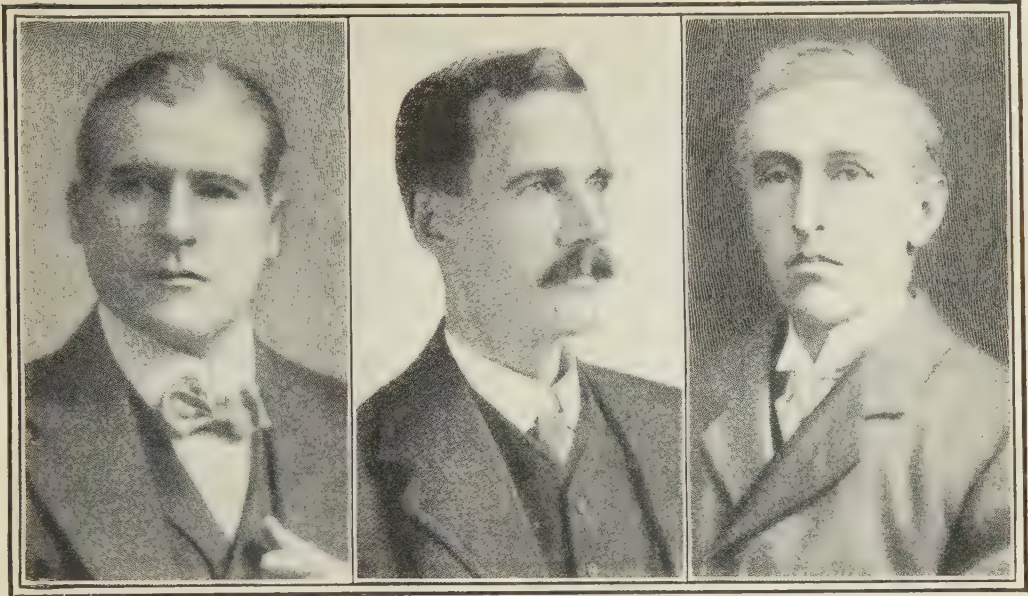
The Ten-Months Parliament

King George's first Parliament, which had a life of only ten months, the shortest since Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule Parliament twenty-five years ago, was dissolved on November 28. The writs of election were issued immediately, and on December 3 the first pollings in the general election took place. The last seats were balloted for on December 19. The total vote shows: Liberals, 271, Laborites,



MR. REDMOND AS DOLLARVER CROMWELL

(In sarcastic allusion to the fact that the Irish leader collected a large sum of money on his recent tour in the United States)
From the *Evening News* (London)



J. PERCEVAL HUGHES
"Chief Agent" of the Unionists

J. A. PETER
"Chief Agent" of the Laborites

SIR ROBERT A. HUDSON
"Chief Agent" of the Liberals

THE POLITICAL PARTY MANAGERS IN GREAT BRITAIN

(These "agents," corresponding to the chairmen of campaign committees in the United States, have been directing the political campaign in England just closed. Note the fact that a peer directed the Liberals)

43, Nationalists, 73, Independent Nationalists (O'Brienites) 11, making a total of 398 in the governmental coalition, against 272 of the Unionists. Speaking of the general campaign in our pages last month, we remarked, "It is a question whether British politics were ever more confused or doubtful than at the present time." This uncertainty is even more a mark of the after election feelings of both parties. There probably never was a British general election at which every citizen—or virtually every one—voted exactly as he had done at the preceding election, which was itself not at all decisive. Mr. Asquith returns to power with the same majority—126—in the Commons. This is not a decisive expression of popular opinion. It may be taken, however, as an endorsement of the course pursued by the premier during the past session.

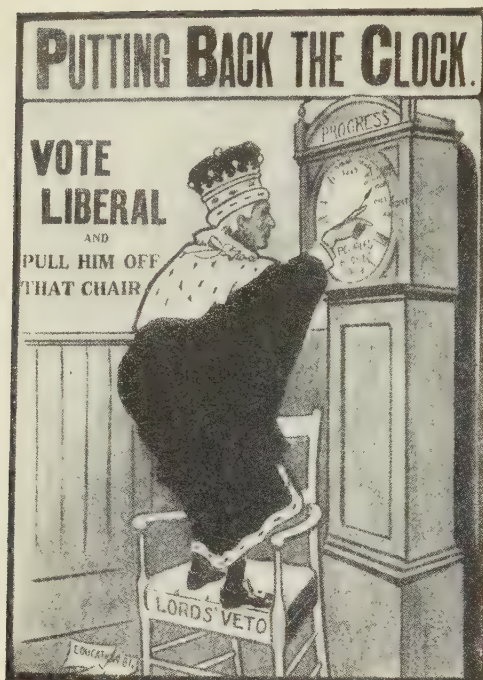
*Asquith's
Difficult
Problem*

It is understood that the new Parliament will be summoned to meet the first week in next month. Then the Premier will be faced with the problem of how to interpret his return to power. His majority is not sufficient to be construed as a decisive popular mandate to adopt a very radical course with the Lords. On the other hand, the appeal to the country was direct—as direct as is possible in

British politics—on the question of limiting the veto power of the Upper House. The fact, therefore, that the electors have returned the Liberals, even by an unaltered majority, will, in all probability, be taken by Mr. Asquith to justify him in pushing the government's anti-veto resolutions.

*What
May Be
Expected*

The government coalition, Liberals, Laborites and Nationalists alike, are all equally desirous of abolishing the veto power of the Peers, and they may be expected to work together for that object. It was evident, all through the days of voting, that reform of the Upper House and Home Rule for Ireland were the main issues. Mr. Arthur Balfour admitted, in a speech in London on November 29, that the question of tariff reform should properly be referred to the popular vote, even in the event of a Unionist triumph at the polls. This declaration by the Opposition leader, removed the tariff issue from the campaign. Chancellor Lloyd-George has publicly proclaimed that the carrying of the resolution against the veto power of the Lords would be only the beginning of the Liberal program. The British constitution, he insists, will be "reformed in such a way that the last vestige of inequality between the two parties will be removed." The Peers will undoubtedly pass



TWO OF THE ELECTION POSTERS USED IN LONDON IN THE RECENT CAMPAIGN

(The first shows a Liberal view of the Lords, the second the Unionist idea of Mr. Redmond's strategic position in Parliament)

the veto bill. The King could not find another Minister if he dismissed Mr. Asquith, and as the Premier will remain only on condition that the Lords pass the veto bill, the King will compel them to pass it. The net result of the whole campaign will be that the Peers will now have legislative authorization for rejecting Liberal bills twice, subject to the caution that they will have to pass them when they are presented a third time. This will probably make compromise the order of the day, instead of collision, which is a very desirable thing. Moreover, as we noted last month, Lord Rosebery's resolutions embodying the renunciation of the hereditary right to sit among the Peers have already been adopted by the Lords themselves. When the Upper House is no longer able to prevent progressive legislation, the Commons will probably give a certain measure of Home Rule to Ireland, abolish plural voting, pass a Scotch land bill and put through a number of other measures popular with the people that have long been held up by the Lords.

Home Rule in Sight Mr. Redmond's triumph is measurably within sight. His ideas as to what Home Rule means and should give to Ireland, he himself sets forth very clearly in a magazine article, the

substance of which we give on another page this month. Once having passed the Parliament at London, Home Rule will still have to face the grave problem of dissensions among the Irish themselves. The rapid increase in the number of the supporters of Mr. William O'Brien, who oppose the Redmond, Nationalistic idea, the protest of the North against the granting of Home Rule and the vehement announcement, made public last month by a number of "Political Associations of Ulster Protestants," that they would refuse to pay taxes levied by any Home Rule Parliament—these are signs that cause apprehension to all true friends of Irish progress. Mr. Redmond and the other Nationalist leaders have always known of the fear of the Protestants that local autonomy at Dublin would be the occasion for Catholic discrimination against the North. These Nationalist leaders, however, assert that they will not accept Home Rule at the hands of the Imperial Parliament unless their Protestant friends are adequately protected. Moreover, Premier Asquith, Sir Edward Grey and Secretary of War Haldane, the real leaders of the Cabinet, have all repeatedly said in public that any Parliament set up in Ireland must be subordinate to the Imperial Parliament at London, which

would not permit the legislators at Dublin to enact into legislation any measure involving religious discrimination.

*Latin
Restless-
ness*

The life of the Latin peoples of Europe during the year just closed has been disturbed by political and economic disorders that have indicated a ferment among the people and impending social changes of vast extent. Italy has been engaged in solving economic problems and in the ever progressing, sometimes bitterly waged, conflict for the complete separation of Church and State. Dissatisfied with the old social order which still obtains in the constitution of the Senate, the Italians, as we point out in an article on another page this month, have already begun a campaign for the drastic reform of their Upper House. The proposed change will make it a truly democratic institution. Economic upheavals in France, Spain, and Portugal have, during recent months, called for statesmanship of a high order. This, fortunately for these Latin peoples, has not been lacking. The French Premier, M. Briand, in his suppression of the various attempts at a "general strike," has shown what can be done by a strong, far-sighted statesman acting as an agent of law and order.

*Spain's
Pressing
Problems*

In Spain, the courageous and able Premier, Señor Canalejas, has been conducting a long campaign for the modernization of his country, in which he has had for his enemies not only the unprogressive, clerical element, but many of the anarchist and so-called republican leaders. We have presented at length and in detail in several numbers of this REVIEW, notably in September, the conflict between the Spanish Government and the Vatican authorities over the question of the religious orders and the revision of the concordat. As we write these lines, the Spanish Premier is skillfully piloting through the Cortes the measure known as the "Padlock Bill," which forbids the entrance of other religious orders into Spain until an agreement shall be arrived at concerning the concordat. Many of the Spanish bishops, be it said to their credit, have come out publicly in support of the Premier in his endeavor to settle this vexed question fairly to both sides. During the course of the agitation there has been much disorder throughout the peninsula, many strikes and riots and constant rumors of the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a republic. Thanks to the strong, intelligent action of the Premier, Spain's

most serious foreign problem has been simplified. Patient but firm negotiations with the Sultan of Morocco have at last resulted in the settlement of Spain's claims against the Moors of many years' standing by the payment of an adequate indemnity. A Moroccan "mission," headed by one of the most eminent of the Moorish Sultan's advisors, arrived in Madrid late in November and signed the convention which established a complete understanding as to Spain's position in North Africa.

*The Por-
tuguese
Republic*

The short, comparatively bloodless, businesslike revolution in Portugal, which took place during the first few days of October last, was one of the important historic events of the present century. Whether or not the new government at Lisbon, under the leadership of the modest author-philosopher, President Braga, will justify its existence by establishing a permanent order that shall be better than the old, remains to be seen. The first few weeks of its existence have served to inspire a degree of confidence in the rest of the world. The modern tendency among the Latin peoples is apparently to whittle away central authority of every kind. It would seem to the keen and candid observer that the Latin nations which are still ruled by kings—Spain and Italy—are within measurable distance of republicanism, and of all those social and political institutions which republicanism in those countries entails.



AUSTRIA IS BEGINNING TO STAGGER UNDER THE WEIGHT OF HER NAVAL BUDGET
From *Muskele* (Vienna)



THE NEW PROTECTOR OF ISLAM

(England and France discover that, after all, the man in the moon [the Turkish Crescent], is really the German Kaiser)
From *Jugend* (Munich)

Militarism
in Central
Europe

Central Europe has seen some shifts and changes in the alignment and realignment of alliances and in the internal problems of the various nations, from the Baltic to the Bosphorus, that may have far-reaching consequences. Germany and Austria-Hungary have become so closely allied as to be virtually, for all military purposes, one and indivisible. Austria continues to build her *Dreadnoughts*, and they become part of the defensive and offensive force of which Germany is the leader. The imperial census now being taken shows a rate of increase in population which would indicate that there are more than 65,000,000 Germans. These figures would place the empire fourth in the list of world powers—as measured by the number of inhabitants. The opinion and wishes of the Berlin government are appar-

ently becoming more and more weighty and influential in the councils of the nations. Teutonic preponderance is seen in international politics from Morocco to Peking. So powerful is the combined offensive and defensive weight that can be directed from Berlin and Vienna that, during the past year, Turkey and Rumania have been attracted to the mass and have virtually declared their adhesion to the Triple Alliance. Russia has apparently acquiesced in the hegemony of the German Kaiser. During the past year, St. Petersburg has sacrificed M. Isvolsky, who opposed German designs in the Balkans two years ago, as the French sacrificed M. Delcassé, some years before when he stood out against Berlin in the Moroccan affair.

Domestic
Problems of
Germany

The Kaiser has had his home troubles, it is true. The Prussians have given vent to loud and continued disapproval of the franchise inequalities that keep them from full manhood suffrage. There has been an ominous increase in the Socialist vote, a good deal of murmuring against the tariff which keeps out American meat, and unstinted popular disapproval of the policies of the Imperial Chancellor, Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg. There have also been serious strikes in Germany, and at one time there seemed to be a grave difference between the German Foreign Office and our own State Department concerning the potash industry, which has been virtually taken over by the German Government. Furthermore, the German people have not been slow in expressing their resentment at the divine right, anti-Parliamentary speech which the impetuous Kaiser made last summer at Königsberg. All these happenings have been duly chronicled month by month in these pages.

Austria
and
Turkey

As far as the outside world is concerned, the year has been a quiet one for Austria-Hungary. The empire of Francis Joseph has figured in the news chiefly when a new monster battleship was completed in one of its shipyards. Race conflicts, however, are irrepressible in Austria-Hungary, and the differences between Vienna and Budapest are apparently impossible of permanent solution. Military and naval reorganization has engaged the major part of the attention of the new régime at Constantinople during the past year. A fierce insurrection by the Albanians, that intractable military people subject to the Porte, was suppressed, early in the year,

after much difficulty. Constantinople has been unceasingly busy in increasing and improving the Ottoman army. The young Turkish leaders have declared that they feared an attack from Greece because of the sympathy of the latter with Crete. What they have not announced, although it is perfectly well known in the Foreign Offices of the other European countries, is the fact that Turkish troops are being pushed steadily into Persia in spite of the protests of the feeble government at Teheran. For all this the military oligarchy at Constantinople must have money. In recent months, the Porte has tried to float a loan in France. It found that the French bankers politely but firmly insisted upon first knowing how the money was to be used. English bankers took the same stand. The Turks then turned to the Triple Alliance, and Austria undertook to provide the necessary loan. At this writing the negotiations have not been completed. Many internal reforms have been promised by the Young Turk government, and many are in progress, although very few of them have as yet been carried through.

*Other
Balkan
States*

The usual state of unrest has been obtained throughout the other Balkan states. Servia has apparently submitted to the domination of Austria-Hungary. Greece has been almost convulsed for several years by the conflict between the clear-headed, cautious King George and the powerful, jingoistic naval party which favors war upon Turkey for the sake of Crete. This new party has more than once brought about the fall of cabinets and coerced the Boulé, Greece's single-chamber Parliament, into working its will. Little Montenegro, in 1910, attained the dignity of a Kingdom, the former Prince assuming the title of King Nicholas I.

*Holland,
Belgium and
Switzerland*

The Scandinavian peoples are among the most peaceful and law-abiding in Europe. Their well-ordered social and economic systems are not often put out of gear. In this class also are Holland, Belgium and Switzerland. Some discontent with franchise restriction has found vent in Switzerland during the past year. An "initiative" proposing the adoption of a system of proportional representation in the elections for the national Federal Council was rejected in October by a substantial majority. So smoothly does the Swiss system work that the rest of the

world rarely knows when an election is held, or the name of the chief magistrate. It is interesting to note, in passing, that the President chosen by the Federal Council to administer the affairs of the little Republic for the year 1911 is M. Marc Ruchet. Questions of military defense against the ever dreaded German absorption and the newly arisen problem of a tariff have been engaging the attention of the Dutch people during the past twelve months. The staid capital of Holland, also, witnessed the deliberations of the tribunal sitting in judgment upon the British and American claims in the long-disputed Newfoundland fisheries problem. All the parties to the dispute and the rest of the world have been unstinted in their praise of the fairness, dignity and learning of the judges who rendered the just decision. The ruling of The Hague Tribunal in this famous case has been one of the great achievements of the century in the direction of international peace.

*Despair
in
Russia*

The "numbness of despair" is the way the calm in Russian political and economic affairs has been characterized by one of the Constitutional-Democratic leaders in the Duma. As we pointed out last month, reaction is apparently still in full swing in Russia. During the year just closed, a large portion of the Empire has been under martial law, and misery, depression and appallingly frequent execution of prisoners have marked its history. The life and writings of the late Leo Tolstoy were in themselves a terrible indictment of the Russian political and social systems. The Czar has apparently gained some hours of quiet in his foreign relations by submitting to Austro-German dictation in Balkan politics and coming to an understanding which amounts almost to a partnership with Japan in the Far East. Meanwhile the government at St. Petersburg continues to harass the Poles by cruel and useless repressive measures and to incite the Finns to patriotic fury by steadily and mercilessly pushing the Russification policy in Finland.

*Ferment
in
Persia*

The Near East continues to ferment. While Turkish military designs against Persia are so thinly veiled as to be plainly visible, the weak government at Teheran has been called to account sharply by both England and Russia. In the southern part of the Iranian land, long acknowledged to be a

British sphere of influence, anarchy has become, not only widespread, but chronic. The trade routes to India have been insecure for years. Last October the Persian authorities were called upon by the British government, in a sharp note, to restore normal security, failing which, Great Britain will herself organize a body of local police, and pay them out of a fund obtained from a tax levied from the customs on the Persian Gulf. This action on the part of the British Government has been denounced by the German press as the beginning of the partition of Persia. In this denunciation Turkish and Persian journals have joined. Just what position Russian official authorities will take it is not easy to predict. Russian interests in North Persia are extensive. But St. Petersburg has generally agreed with London in regard to Persia. One result of the Turko-German agreement has been the recently announced decision of the German syndicate to resume the construction of the Bagdad Railroad and continue it to completion. In time, undoubtedly, a Russian line will connect the Bagdad road with the already existing lines in India, and then it will be possible for the tourist to travel from Paris to Bombay by rail.

Progress
in
British India

The condition of British India is, undoubtedly, better to-day than it has been for many years. As we remarked last month in these pages, in commenting upon the retirement of Lord Morley from the Indian Office, a new era has been opened for Britain's Indian empire by the successful operation of the reform scheme which Lord Morley inaugurated five years ago. There have been outbreaks against British rule, and considerable difficulty in carrying out the details of the application of this reform scheme to the routine of administration, but political, social and economic conditions are steadier in India to-day than ever before, and there is an ever increasing participation of natives in the government of their fatherland.

A
Constitutional
China

Rapid progress has been made in China, during the twelve months just passed, toward the realization of a parliamentary, constitutional government. Provincial assemblies, representing the first step toward popular government in the empire's history of thousands of years, were inaugurated in October, 1909. The first Imperial Senate met on October 3 last. The astonishingly smooth working of these two

representative bodies encouraged the people to demand that the original nine-year period of preparation for a real popular assembly be shortened. The throne was memorialized, extraordinarily widespread popular interest was manifested, and the Regent and the Grand Council finally yielded to the popular wish. The imperial sanction of the abolition of the queue and the efforts of the government to put down the opium evil were other signs of progress. Late in November a decree was promulgated advancing the date for the inauguration of a fully representative assembly to the year 1913. The newspaper despatches are now full of accounts of loudly expressed popular demand for a still earlier meeting of Parliament. The Peking correspondent of the London *Times* has given it as his opinion that a real Parliament will be summoned early in the present year, and that "it seems almost safe to announce that the ancient, absolute régime in China will exist only historically after the Chinese New Year in January, 1911." The visit of Secretary Dickinson to Peking, on his way home from the Philippines, evoked many expressions of cordial feeling in China.

The Problems
of
Japan

Almost the same date that saw the erection of the tiny principality of Montenegro into a kingdom in the Near East, witnessed the extinction of the ancient monarchy of Korea at the other end of the Asiatic continent. The formal annexation of Korea to Japan, which was announced on August 27 last, was made because "his Majesty, the Emperor of Japan, has found it impossible to effect desired reforms in Korea while it remains outside of the empire, and he therefore incorporates it in his dominions by and with the approval of the Korean government." This addition of ten or twelve millions of Koreans to her population, with the administrative and economic problems the annexation entails, will absorb a good part of Japan's energies for a generation or more to come. At home the Island Empire has had her attention absorbed in problems chiefly of finance. The imposition of heavy taxes necessitated by the vast outlays for army and navy, has not improved the hard social and industrial lot of a large portion of the Japanese population. Some popular discontent has arisen, and the growth of socialism has been marked. During the summer the Western world heard meagre but persistent reports of an attempt to assassinate the Emperor by a political agitator. In November it was announced that the assassin

had been apprehended and would be dealt with at once by the courts.

*Africa
in
1910*

The year 1910 saw, among other noteworthy events on the African continent, the formal inauguration of the new United States of South Africa, the initiation of an extensive program of reforms by Belgium in the Congo, the steady advance of the French "pacific penetration" of the Sahara, the agreement of Morocco with Spain and the arousing of the Nationalist feelings in Egypt against England, with the consequent tightening of the British hold upon the land of the Pharaohs. Ex-President Roosevelt's vigorous expression of opinion as to Britain's opportunity and duty in Egypt, set forth in his speeches at Cairo University in April, and at the London Guild Hall in June, were the subject of world-wide comment. Considerable progress was made toward a permanent settlement of the vexed Liberian question during the year just closed. The patient efforts of the State Department at Washington, which has sent two expeditions to the little African republic, aided by the reasonableness of the British and French governments, have brought about a definite understanding as to Liberia's real status in the family of nations.

*Affairs
in
Canada*

Of late years the people of the Dominion of Canada and those of the United States have come to understand each other better, and to realize their real community of interest. During the twelve months that have just passed into history, the two governments have arrived at a definite, cordial understanding with regard to a number of long-disputed points having to do with boundary lines, waterways that lie in both countries, and the use of the Niagara River for power purposes. Several commissions made up of eminent legal authorities from both countries, with the official sanction of the governments at Ottawa and Washington, have now succeeded in arriving at a settlement of most of these points satisfactory to both sides. The year 1910 saw also the final disposition, by the Tribunal at The Hague, of the historic controversy between

the United States and British North America—the Newfoundland fisheries question. The one question still at issue between the two peoples, that of a more progressive, more mutually satisfactory tariff, is yet to be solved. The larger situation as affected by our tariff relations with our northern neighbors, together with the arguments for and against the much discussed reciprocity idea, are set forth by Mr. P. T. McGrath on page 42. Last month we mentioned the plan of the societies of farmers and grain growers of Ontario and the western Canadian provinces to journey to Ottawa for the purpose of impressing Premier Laurier with the necessity for a reduction of duties on American agricultural products and machinery. Fifteen hundred accredited delegates from these grain growers' associations, representing five different provinces, held a convention in the Dominion capital on December 15, and voted unanimously in favor of free trade with the United States. In the eleventh Parliament of the Dominion, which began its annual session on November 21, a number of speeches were made in behalf of some sort of reciprocity arrangement.

*For a
Canadian
Navy*

Canada is to have a real navy for defense purposes. The propositions of Sir Wilfrid Laurier for national defense and for the Dominion's share in the Imperial army and navy establishment, most of which have already received Parliamentary support, contemplates the organization of a Canadian militia and the building of a Canadian navy, "subject to the call of the British admiralty, provided always that within fifteen days the Dominion Parliament ratifies the call." One Canadian cruiser, the *Niobe*, has already been completed and is now in service. Early in November, the beginnings of Canada's independent naval establishment were signaled by the departure from Esquimaux of the representatives of the British admiralty. With the transfer to the Dominion authorities of this naval station and dockyard, on the Pacific coast, there disappears from the mainland of the North American continent the last outpost of British Imperial power.



November 23.—President Taft arrives in Washington on his return from an inspection of the Panama Canal.

November 25.—The President orders that the returns under the new corporation tax law be made public, subject to regulations proscribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

November 28.—United States Attorney Wise, at New York City, enters suit for the dissolution of the Sugar Trust. . . . The newly created Railroad Securities Committee holds its first meeting, at Washington.

November 29.—The third Conference of Governors begins its sessions at Frankfort, Ky.

December 1.—Governor-elect Foss, of Massachusetts, opens his campaign against the reelection of Senator Lodge. . . . The existence of a trade in rotten eggs, to be used for food, is brought to light through an investigation by New York City officials.

December 3.—The President appoints Senator Root to membership on the Hague Tribunal; Frederick W. Lehmann is made Solicitor-General of the United States.

December 6.—Judge John R. Thornton is elected United States Senator from Louisiana to succeed the late Senator McEnery. . . . The President sends to the Senate the nomination of John W. Garrett to be minister to Venezuela. . . . A federal grand jury at Detroit indicts firms and individuals alleged to control by illegal combination the manufacture and sale of bathtubs and plumbers' supplies.

December 9.—The proposed constitution for the State of Arizona, a very radical document, is signed by the delegates.

December 10.—The Census Bureau announces the population of the United States as 91,972,266; including the insular possessions the total is 101,100,000.

December 12.—President Taft sends to the Senate the nominations of Edward D. White to be Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, and Joseph R. Lamar and Willis Van Devanter to be Associate Justices; Martin A. Knapp is appointed presiding judge of the new Commerce Court. . . . The United States Supreme Court decides that conspiracy under the Sherman Anti-Trust law may be a continuing offense, thereby sustaining the indictment of Sugar Trust officials.

December 13.—Senator Aldrich and Representative Payne announce themselves as in favor of tariff revision schedule by schedule.

December 14.—The Department of Justice announces the early prosecution under the Sherman law of the so-called Electrical Trust.

December 16.—Post-office inspectors raid many "get-rich-quick" concerns in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, arresting nineteen principals.

December 17.—The Senate committee which investigated the charges of bribery in the election of Senator Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) reports that the charges have not been proved.

December 18.—The New Mexico Democratic Territorial Convention condemns the proposed constitution.

December 19.—Edward D. White, assumes his seat as Chief Justice of the United States.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

November 19.—Prime Minister Asquith opens the British campaign with a speech at the National Liberal Club, outlining his party's program. . . . The discussion of the so-called "padlock" bill is begun in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies.

November 20.—Premier Briand is attacked by a Royalist while attending the dedication of the Jules Ferry statue in the Tuileries.

November 21.—Sergius Sazonov is appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs in Russia. . . . An insurrection breaks out in the northern provinces of Mexico; several important towns are seized by the revolutionists.

November 23.—The crews of two Brazilian battleships in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro mutiny and secure control of the vessels; an ultimatum is sent to Congress demanding an increase in pay and the abolition of corporal punishment.

November 24.—The British House of Lords adopts Lord Lansdowne's resolutions dealing with the manner of settling the differences between the two houses of Parliament. . . . The Mexican Minister of War announces that the insurgents have been scattered and that quiet is restored.

November 25.—The Brazilian Government yields to the demands of the mutineers and grants amnesty to them. . . . The lower house of the South African Union appoints a committee to examine the educational systems of the provinces.

November 28.—The British Parliament is dissolved in order that the Liberal Government may go before the country on the question of the veto power of the House of Lords.

December 1.—Porfirio Diaz is inaugurated for his eighth term as President of Mexico.

December 6.—The French Chamber of Deputies votes \$1,160,000 for the relief of victims of the recent floods; a committee of the Chamber reports in favor of a limited suffrage for women.

December 7.—The German Reichstag passes the second reading of the bill establishing labor exchanges composed equally of employers and employees, to settle labor disputes.

December 10.—The trial of twenty-six persons accused of plotting against the life of the Emperor is begun at Tokyo. . . . A mutiny among marines quartered in a fort in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro is quelled only after an artillery engagement lasting all day; 200 of the mutineers are killed or wounded. . . . The Turkish Chamber of Deputies, by vote of 123 to 63, affirms confidence in the government.

December 15.—Bands of Bedouins massacre Turkish officers and troops at several military posts.

December 16.—A delegation of 1000 Canadian farmers presents formal demands to the Government for an immediate downward revision of the tariff: Premier Laurier replies that they must await the result of the reciprocity negotiations with the United States (see page 42). . . . The Bolivian ministry resigns as a protest against the reestablishment of diplomatic relations with Argentina. . . . The Mexican insurgents decisively defeat the Government troops in an engagement at La Junta. . . . A constitution for Alsace-Lorraine, providing for two elective chambers, is drafted in the German Bundesrath.

December 17.—The editions of four daily newspapers in Russia are confiscated because they contain a radical speech made in the Duma.

December 19.—The general elections in Great Britain end with a coalition majority of 126, an increase of two votes.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

November 23.—Sir Richard Cartwright, Minister of Trade and Commerce, advocates in the Canadian Parliament closer relations with the United States.

December 3.—China opens negotiations for new foreign loan of \$25,000,000 for the development of the navy.

December 6.—It is rumored in Copenhagen that the inhabitants of the Danish West Indies have petitioned the Government to sell the islands to the United States.

December 7.—The Supreme Court in Germany orders that the Reichsbank pay to Turkey the \$4,500,000 which it has on deposit to the credit of the deposed Sultan Abdul Hamid.

December 9.—Secretary Knox decides to surrender Porter Charlton, an American, to Italy for trial for wife-murder.

December 13.—Diplomatic relations are re-established between Argentina and Bolivia, the latter country acknowledging that President Alcorta's decision in the Bolivia-Peru boundary dispute was non-partisan.

December 18.—It is planned to form a combination of Central and South American republics for the purpose of abolishing revolutions by the creation of an international police.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

November 19.—A severe earth shock is felt at Martinique but causes no damage.

November 22.—Mobs of suffragettes in London, dissatisfied with the Premier's promise of consideration of a woman suffrage bill in the next Parliament, stone the residences of Premier Asquith and several members of his cabinet. . . . Count Leo Tolstoy is buried at Yasnaya Polyana.

November 23.—A dispatch from St. Petersburg states that Manchuria is officially declared to be infected with the bubonic plague.

November 25.—A number of earth shocks are felt in Spain, no damage being done.

November 26.—Twenty-five women and girls lose their lives in a factory fire at Newark, N. J. . . . Samuel Gompers is reelected president of the American Federation of Labor at St. Louis.

November 27.—The Pennsylvania Railroad inaugurates its train service into New York City, formally opening the tunnels under the Hudson River.

November 28.—Thirteen men are killed by an explosion in an asphalt mine at Durant, Okla.

November 29.—The British South Polar expedition, with the *Terra Nova*, leaves New Zealand for the Antarctic. . . . The dedicatory exercises at the new home of the Union Theological Seminary, in New York City, are attended by delegates from the leading universities of the world.

December 1.—The free hospital for consumptives at Toronto, Canada, is destroyed by fire. . . . The New York Central and the Pennsylvania

railroads make concessions to the Erie, Wabash, and Grand Trunk systems to avert a rate war.

December 3.—Chairman Emery, in an address before the Chicago Association of Commerce, outlines the plans of the Tariff Board. . . . Two Italian aviators are killed by the capsizing of their machine during a flight near Rome.

December 4.—Unprecedented storms in Mindanao and Zamboanga, Philippine Islands, cause the loss of a score of lives and considerable property damage.

December 5.—The striking taxicab chauffeurs in New York City accept the terms offered by the companies. . . . A strike among the drivers of delivery wagons spreads in Chicago. . . . A bronze statue of Sir Henry Irving is unveiled in London.

December 6.—Eleven new cases of cholera, and two deaths from the disease, are reported in Italy.

December 7.—President Taft addresses the seventh annual Rivers and Harbor Congress at its opening session in Washington. . . . Four passengers are carried by aviator Brunsber in a Farman biplane at Johannisthal, Germany. . . . A monument to General Baron von Steuben is unveiled at Washington, addresses being made by President Taft and the German ambassador.

December 8.—The city of Bogota, Colombia, makes the final payment on the purchase of the Bogota city railway from its American owners. . . . Deaths from cholera at Madeira average three persons daily. . . . The funeral of Mrs. Mary Baker Eddy, founder of the Christian Science Church, is held at her home near Boston.

December 9.—George W. Perkins resigns from the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co. in order to devote himself to corporation interests and to a solution of the problems involved in the relations of capital and labor. . . . M. Legagneux, using a Bleriot monoplane, breaks the world's altitude record at Pau, France, ascending 10,500 feet. . . . Two members of the Cuban House of Representatives shoot each other in an Havana street; Señor Molen dies from his wound and General Figuera is mortally wounded. . . . Princess Louise of Belgium brings suit to recover \$8,000,000 which belonged to her father, the late King Leopold.

December 10.—Puccini's opera, "The Girl of the Golden West," is sung for the first time, at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City.

December 13.—Dr. George Edgar Vincent is chosen president of the University of Minnesota. . . . Floods in the northern part of Italy, caused by continued rains, isolate many villages.

December 14.—Andrew Carnegie gives \$10,000,000 to a board of trustees, the income to be used for the promotion of international peace. . . . Contracts are let in London for the construction of two 24,000-ton battleships for the British navy.

December 15.—The American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes meets in Washington.

December 16.—Continued rains in England cause the flooding of large areas, the water in some places being twelve feet deep.

December 18.—Henry Farman remains in the air 8 hours and 13 minutes at Etampes, France.

December 19.—An explosion of artificial gas at the Grand Central Terminal, in New York City, kills ten persons and injures 120; the property damage is estimated at \$3,000,000.

OBITUARY

November 19.—Gen. Adam B. King, of Maryland, a veteran of the Civil War and formerly consul at Paris, 76.

November 20.—Count Leo Tolstoy, the Russian novelist, 82. . . . Henry M. Hoyt, counsellor of the State Department, 53.

November 21.—Gen. George M. Harmon, prominent in the industrial and political life of Connecticut, 72.

November 22.—Brig.-Gen. David Lynn Magruder, U. S. A., retired, 85.

November 23.—Octave Chanute, an engineer, known as "the father of the aeroplane," 78.

November 24.—Cardinal Alessandro Sanminiati-Fabarella, 70.

November 26.—Moses C. Wetmore, of St. Louis, prominent in Democratic national politics, 65. . . . Richard T. Wilson, the veteran New York financier, 81. . . . Judge Robert W. Taylor, of the United States Circuit Court, 58.

November 27.—Gen. James Oakes, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil Wars, 84. . . . Michael Cudahy, founder of the Cudahy Packing Company, 69. . . . Dr. Landon B. Edwards, a prominent Virginia physician and medical writer, 65.

November 28.—George Frederick Seward, of New York, an authority on casualty insurance and formerly minister to China, 70. . . . Rev. Charles Henry Burr, for many years librarian of Williams College, 62.

November 29.—Matthew Henry Buckham, president of the University of Vermont, 78. . . . Dr. Samuel Alexander, a prominent New York surgeon and writer, 52. . . . Rev. Dr. Sylvester F. Scovel, formerly president of Wooster University, 75. . . . Florencio L. Dominguez, Argentine minister to Great Britain.

November 30.—John William Ellis, former president Plattsburg (Mo.) College and Central Christian College (Mo.), 71.

December 1.—William Pryor Letchworth, giver of the 1000-acre Letchworth Park to New York State, 87. . . . John Eyton Bickersteth Mayor, professor of Latin at Cambridge University, 85. . . . Mrs. Julia Wyatt, who created the rôle of *Topsy* in "Uncle Tom's Cabin," 87.

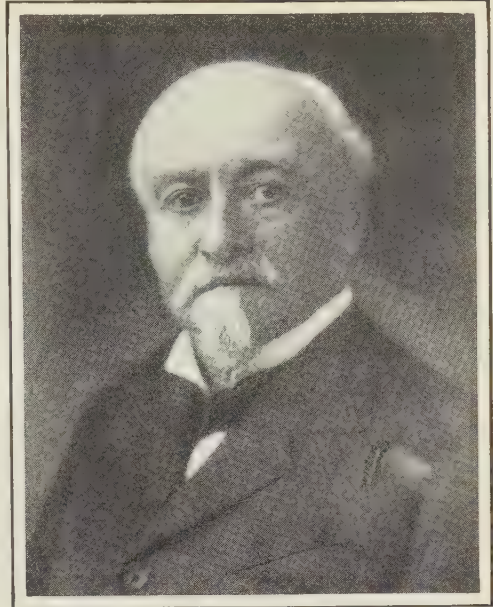
December 2.—Judge James Brooks Dill, of New Jersey, an authority on corporation law, 56. . . . Rt. Rev. Channing Moore Williams, senior bishop of the Episcopal Church in the United States, 82. . . . Major-Gen. Eugene A. Carr, U. S. A., retired, 80. . . . Jose M. Figueras-Chiques, justice of the Porto Rico Supreme Court, 59.

December 3.—Mrs. Mary Baker Glover Eddy, founder of the Christian Science Church, 89. . . . Major-Gen. Wesley Merritt, U. S. A., retired, 74.

December 4.—Brig.-Gen. Oliver E. Wood, U. S. A., retired, 66.

December 5.—Dr. Christian Archibald Herter, of New York, an expert in pathological chemistry, 45. . . . The Duc de Chartres, uncle of the French Pretender, 70.

December 6.—Prof. Charles Otis Whitman, head of the department of Zoölogy at the University of Chicago, 68. . . . Rear-Adm. James H. Gillis, U. S. N., retired, 79. . . . Dr. John Cummings Munro, a prominent Boston surgeon, 52. . . . Dr. John C. Da Costa, the eminent Philadelphia



THE LATE OCTAVE CHANUTE
("Father of the Aeroplane")

gynæcologist, 76. . . . Ex-Congressman John A. Swope, of Pennsylvania, 87.

December 7.—Justice Charles W. Dayton, of the New York Supreme Court, 64. . . . Justice W. D. Beard, of the Tennessee Supreme Court, 73. . . . George N. Johnstone, a brigadier-general of the Civil War and formerly a member of the Civil Service Commission, 78. . . . Prof. Ludwig Knaus, the German genre painter, 81.

December 9.—Gen. Henry Edwin Tremain, Civil War veteran, author, and lawyer. . . . Major-Gen. Wallace F. Randolph, U. S. A., retired, 69.

December 10.—Henry Guy Carleton, the playwright, 64. . . . Richard LaBarre Goodwin, the landscape painter, 70.

December 11.—John Rogers Maxwell, formerly president of the Central Railroad of New Jersey, 64. . . . E. V. W. Rossiter, vice-president of the New York Central Railroad, 66. . . . Prof. Henri Huchard, a distinguished French physician, 66.

December 12.—Dr. Emil Reich, the historian, 56. . . . Eyre Crowe, the English painter, 86.

December 14.—Manuel de J. Galvan, the Santo Domingo jurist and diplomat, 78. . . . Frank Lee Benedict, the novelist, 76.

December 15.—Major John F. Hanson, president of the Central of Georgia Railway, 70. . . . Representative Joel Cook, of Pennsylvania, 68.

December 16.—Melville De Lancey Landon ("Eli Perkins"), the humorous writer, 71.

December 17.—Brig.-Gen. Jared A. Smith, U. S. A., retired, president of the Cleveland County Buildings Commission, 70. . . . Brig.-Gen. Henry C. Hasbrouck, U. S. A., retired. . . . Ex-Congressman Wallace T. Foote, of New York, 46.

December 18.—Major-Gen. J. C. Boyd, adjutant and inspector-general of South Carolina, 62. . . . Don Anibal Cruz, minister from Chile to the United States, 45.

SOME CLEVER CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



"IF I CAN'T HITCH ON THIS TIME IT'S ALL OFF"

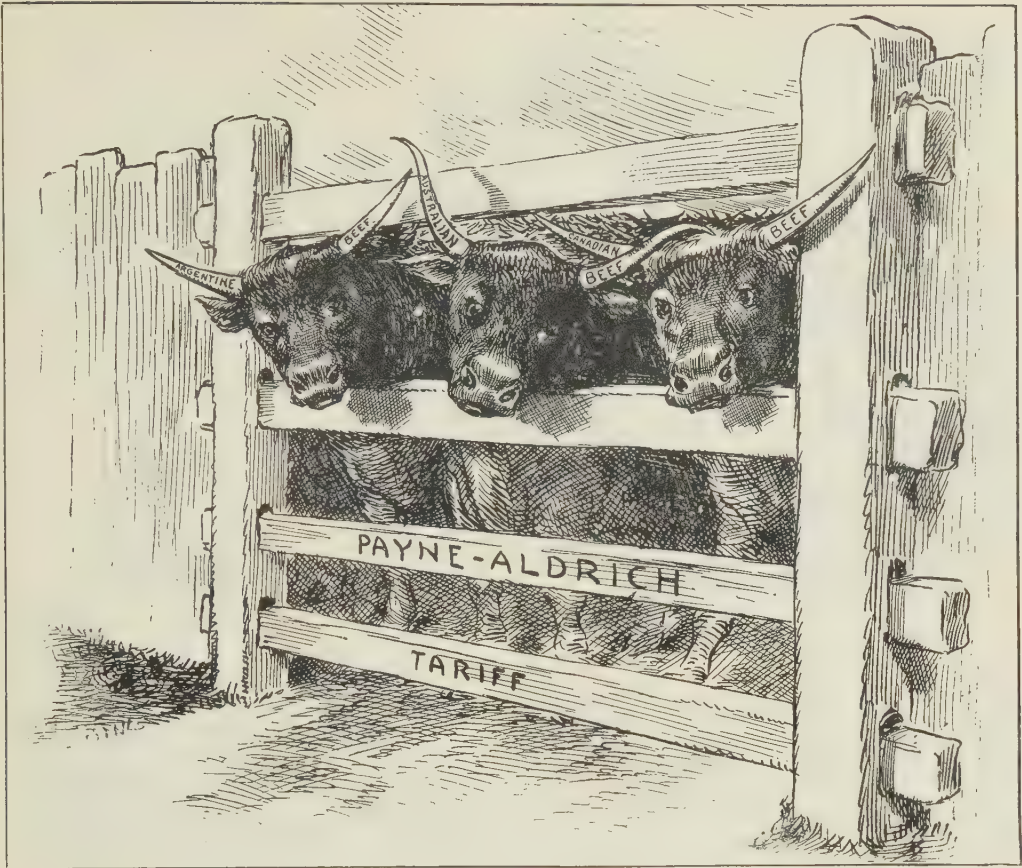
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

THE short session and the long program is now the problem before the Sixty-first Congress. With only two months more of life, the question how to rectify the sins of omission and commission—to do those things that it ought to have done, and to undo those things which it ought to have done differently—some tariff schedules—is putting "the pale cast of thought" on the countenances of the Republican leaders.



A MISFIT

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



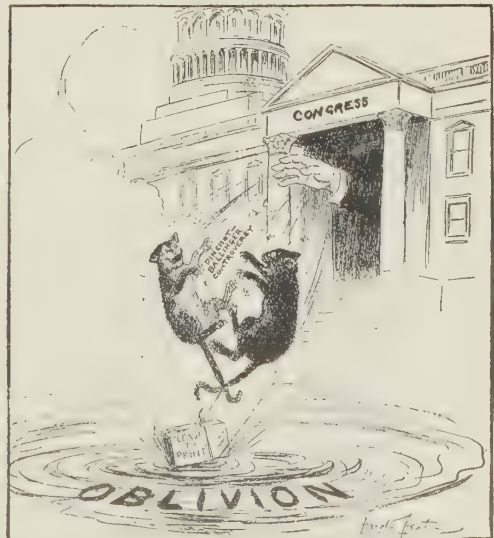
LET DOWN THE BARS

(One way to lower the price of meat—let foreign beef come in free) From the *World* (New York)



THE HIGH COST OF LIVING PROBLEM

THE G. O. P. TO MISS DEMOCRACY: "Now you can take care of him for a while."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



THE BALLINGER-PINCHOT CONTROVERSY

"Isn't this the best way to settle it?"
From the *Inter-Ocean* (Chicago)



WATCH THE PROFESSOR

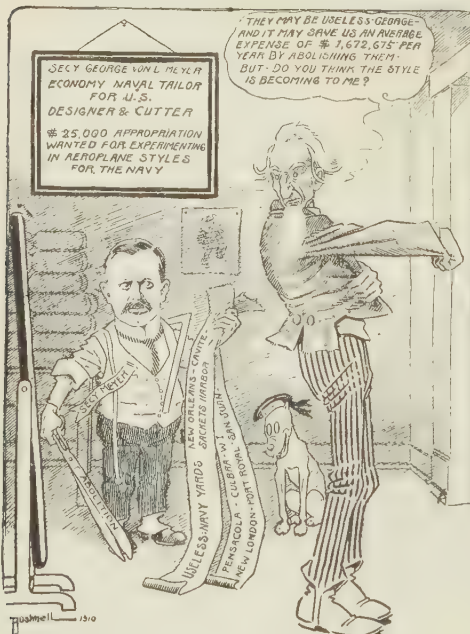
From the North-American (Philadelphia)

The "Professor" in this case, is the railroads of the country, which are urgently requesting permission of the Interstate Commerce Commission to raise freight rates, whereupon the "Professor" will produce the rabbit "Prosperity," to be enjoyed by all.



FLIES IN THE BUTTER—THE RAILROAD PRESIDENTS WHO SEE NO GOOD TIMES AHEAD WITHOUT HIGHER FREIGHT RATES

From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane)



NEW NAVAL ECONOMY FOR UNCLE SAM

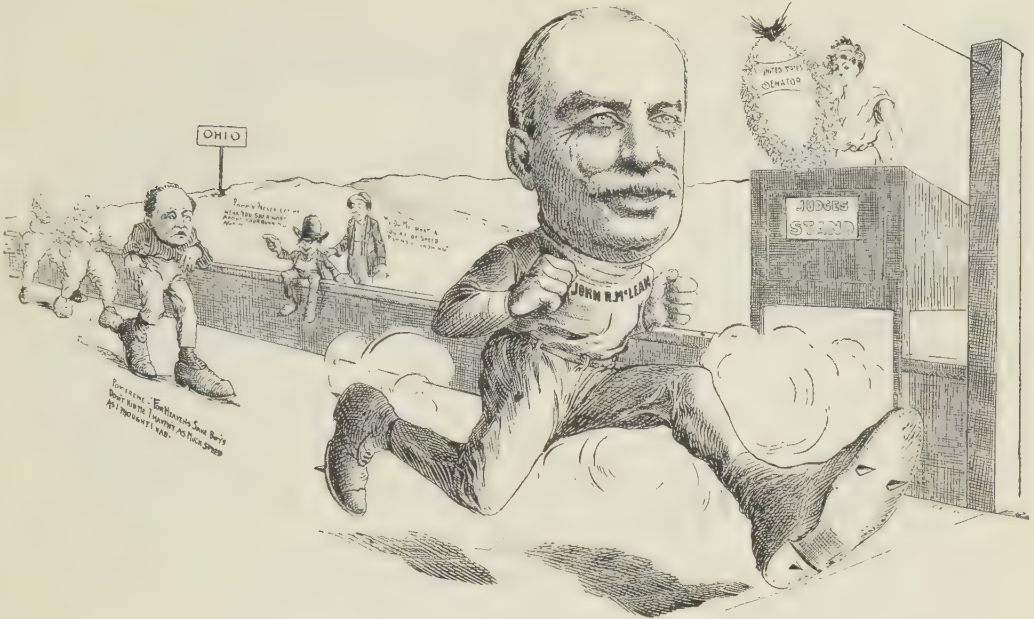
From the Times-Star (Cincinnati)



In for It

THE SUGAR TRUST IS IN FOR IT

From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane)



CAN'T HEAD HIM OFF

(Mr. John R. McLean seems to be running strong in the race for the Ohio senatorship)
From the *Meddler* (Cincinnati)

A number of interesting contests for seats in the United States Senate have been going on in various states.

In Ohio, John R. McLean has assumed prominence in the race for Senator Dick's seat, although Atlee Pomerene is also a strong candidate. The situation in New Jersey is especially interesting because of the part taken in the fight by Governor Wilson. The Governor is backing Mr. Martine, who was the choice of the primaries, and who is being opposed by former senator James H. Smith,

Jr. Both the Governor and Mr. Smith have enlivened the contest by issuing statements giving their views on the situation.

In New York the contest will probably be decided early in the present month. The names of half a dozen or more prominent Democrats have been presented in the effort to find a successor to Senator Depew, and Mr. Murphy and Governor Dix have both been besieged with questions on the subject.



THE NEW JERSEY SENATORIAL TROUBLE

UNCLE SAM: "You're an awful talker, Smith, but I kinder feel like Woodrow's got it on ye."

From the *Evening Sun* (Baltimore)

THE SELECTION OF A SENATOR TO SUCCEED DEPEW IS IN THE HANDS OF THE LEGISLATURE."



"THE LEGISLATURE IS IN THE HANDS OF THE DEMOCRATIC MAJORITY"



AND THE DEMOCRATIC MAJORITY IS IN THE HANDS OF -



AND THE PUBLIC WILL GET WHAT'S COMING TO IT
From the *Press* (New York)



DIFFERENT COUNTRIES, DIFFERENT CUSTOMS; OR, INSURGENTS IN AMERICA AND IN MEXICO
From the News (Chicago)



IN BRAZIL

If your salary isn't satisfactory, join the navy and then mutiny!

From the Journal (Detroit)

(The crews of several Brazilian warships last month mutinied, captured their vessels, pointed the guns inshore, demanded more pay—and got it!)



DAWN

From the Inquirer (Philadelphia)
(Now it is a modern parliament for China—surely the Celestial Giant is awakening from the sleep of centuries.)



WHAT CAN THE POOR DOVE DO?
From the *American* (New York)



NEIGHBORLY
From the *Herald* (New York)

The Dove of Peace, bearing the ten-million-dollar gift of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, may seem insignificant in the face of the huge war armaments supported by billions of dollars annually; but—who knows?—the wise use of the peace fund may in time make the war god and his huge implements insignificant.

The "neighborly" cartoon on the right,

at the top of the page, reflects the sentiment on the subject of reciprocity between Canada and the United States—a subject that is now being much discussed in both countries. The regrettable struggles between the militant suffragettes and the police in England have led a great many sober-thinking people to wonder if that is "the only way" to go about the matter.



THE ONLY WAY?

MRS. BULL: "I wonder if there is no better way than this." (From the *Westminster Gazette* (London))

WILL THERE BE RECIPROCITY BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA?

BY P. T. McGRATH

FOR many years there have been proposals for freer trade, either in raw materials or all-embracing, between the United States and Canada, always on the latter's part until recently. The various overtures of the Dominion in the past were declined so unmistakably, if courteously, that several years back Sir Wilfrid Laurier, chafing under the rebuffs experienced by his predecessors and himself, proclaimed in the Ottawa Commons that there would be "no more pilgrimages to Washington," and formulated the alternative policy of a "British preference," or a special reduction in the duties on British exports to the Dominion.

Canada's marvelous progress in late years has enabled her to effectively maintain this attitude; and her unyielding commercial independence of the United States, coupled with her possession of raw materials of constantly increasing value, has swung the pendulum contrariwise. Now the overtures for reciprocity have originated at Washington, and the "pilgrims" to-day are American delegates who cannot but discern, in eastern Canada at any rate, a chilliness in popular, if not in official sentiment, somewhat like the atmosphere of the American capital with regard to this question in years gone by.

AVERTING A TARIFF WAR

So outspoken has been some Canadian criticism of reciprocity that prominent men in the Dominion have publicly rebuked it and urged frank and friendly discussion of the whole subject by the two cabinets; claiming that this course would be helpful in showing both sides the difficulties besetting this complex international situation, and enabling both peoples to respect the principles which impel them even to "agree to differ." The way was cleared for such discussion when President Taft and Canada's Finance Minister, Mr. Fielding, in a conference at Albany last March, arranged for such reductions in duties on several unimportant American exports to

Canada as warranted the latter being conceded the minimum rates under the Payne-Aldrich bill. Opinion is general that Mr. Fielding purchased cheap for his country immunity from a tariff war involving a joint trade of over \$300,000,000 annually—a war in which Canada must suffer severely, even if America suffered more; and one which might, through the angry feelings engendered, easily lead to more calamitous consequences.

AMERICA TAKES THE INITIATIVE

Canada's recent indifference to reciprocity can be appreciated by understanding that while her eight million people buy from America annually \$200,000,000 worth of commodities of every kind, or 60 per cent. of their total imports, and allow \$90,000,000 worth free entry (chiefly raw materials), America's hundred million people purchase from the Dominion only \$120,000,000 worth, or barely 30 per cent. of Canada's exports, and allow but a third thereof free access. America has thus decidedly the best of the bargain, and any tariff war which would jeopardize these advantages would be decidedly unwelcome, especially when statistics show that American imports are now exceeding exports, and that the republic is entering upon a new phase of its commercial existence.

Hence the formal proposal by Secretary of State Knox last March for negotiations for freer trade, and its acceptance by Minister of Finance Fielding, to take effect in the autumn, as Canadian cabinet ministers had already made engagements for the summer. The conferees met at Ottawa on November 1, Messrs C. M. Pepper, tariff expert; H. M. Hoyt (since deceased), counselor to the State Department; and C. H. Foster, American Consul-General to the Dominion, acting for the United States; Canada being represented by her Ministers of Finance and Customs, Hon. W. S. Fielding and Hon. William Paterson.

Naturally, absolute secrecy marked the negotiations, and critics in both countries de-

duced from the brevity of the sessions and the silence of the negotiators that failure was probable. In the Speech from the Throne, however, with which Earl Grey, the Canadian Governor-General, opened the Dominion Parliament on November 17, the subject was reviewed in these words:

wheat might be lessened by Canadian competition; from the American producer of raw materials, who would be similarly affected (and it is worth noting that certain Democrats in Congress oppose free raw materials); and from the operatives, who fear reduced wages and less employment.

Following the negotiations which took place some months ago between the President of the United States and my government, the results of which were at the time communicated to Parliament, a further conference between representatives of the two countries has been held at Ottawa. While no conclusions have been reached, and no formal proposals made, the free discussion of the subject that has taken place encourages my government to hope that at an early day, without any sacrifice of Canada's interests, an arrangement may be made which will admit many of the products of the Dominion into the United States on satisfactory terms.

Moreover, Premier Laurier, who had declared, in a speech at Montreal on October 10, when formally welcomed from touring the Northwest, his belief that an advantageous arrangement was possible, repeated this declaration in the debate at Ottawa on November 21 after the conference had adjourned.

PRESIDENT TAFT'S ATTITUDE

On the American side, too, President Taft, in his annual message to Congress, mentioned the matter in these terms:

The policy of broader and closer trade relations with the Dominion of Canada which was initiated in the adjustment of the maximum and minimum provisions of the tariff act of August, 1909, has proved mutually beneficial. It justifies further efforts for the readjustment of the commercial relations of the two countries, so that their commerce may follow the channels natural to contiguous countries and be commensurate with the steady expansion of trade and industry on both sides of the boundary line.

Both governments being thus unequivocally pledged to earnest endeavors to effect freer trade, it remains to consider the conditions operating to make or mar the movement.

BENEFITS TO THE UNITED STATES

The American arguments for reciprocity are that it would open a highly advantageous market for United States manufactures, afford access to Canadian raw materials for use therein, supply cheaper foodstuffs to the American consumer, and stimulate trade in every form. Objections to it would come from the American farmer, whose price of

BENEFITS TO CANADA

The Canadian arguments favoring reciprocity are that whereas her exports were under \$100,000,000 until 1882, and did not total \$200,000,000 annually for twenty years later, they reached \$300,000,000 in 1909-10, the growth in the past eight years being thus as great as in the preceding twenty. Of the total this year, agricultural products form one half, showing that despite the progress of other industries, this still leads. Although Britain remains by far Canada's best customer, taking virtually half her exports—the figures for 1909-10, \$149,634,107, being the largest on record—Canada purchases from Britain but 25 per cent. of her imports, though the "preference" applies to British goods.

With the United States the situation is the reverse. Canada buys from her 60 per cent. of her total imports even against the competition of the "preference," though Canada's sales to America are but 25 per cent. of her total exports, and in this fiscal year declined \$370,000. Still, reciprocity advocates in both countries regard these figures as amply justifying this policy, arguing that if these results are achievable under an American tariff designedly framed to exclude foreign products and a Canadian tariff based on moderate protection, what may not be expected if the tariff barriers were thrown down? The geographical propinquity and the promptness with which trade can be conducted naturally attract the two countries commercially; the United States needs raw materials and can obtain them nowhere else so conveniently as in Canada; the outcry against the cost of living must make for reduced taxation and freer intercourse; and as the States gained by becoming a republic and the Provinces gained by becoming a dominion, both should gain by being linked together in commercial union.

CANADIAN ARGUMENTS AGAINST RECIPROCITY

It has been so long taken for granted by Americans that Canada would "jump at" reciprocity that there is amazement at the idea of her possibly declining such a compact.

Therefore, the Canadian arguments against freer trade, which are but little understood in the United States, are appended in some detail, to illustrate the obstacles in the way of an agreement. These arguments are:

(1) America denied us this concession when it seemed indispensable to us. Now, when we have secured commercial stability otherwise, and she, in her need, seeks reciprocity with us, let us treat her in the same fashion.

(2) America will not give us a "square deal" in any case, for under the last treaty she charged us duty on the "packages" in which "fishery products" were contained, though bound to admit the latter duty free; and refused to consider Lake Champlain part of the canal system conceded freedom from tolls, though this had always previously been so regarded, these refusals largely destroying the value of the arrangement for Canada.

(3) We have, during the past forty years, spent vast sums in perfecting our railway systems and providing commercial avenues east and west, thus affording the maximum of employment to our own people and agencies in distributing our imports from and exports to the outside world (apart from the United States); whereas, under reciprocity the north-and-south lines and American transportation agencies would benefit at the cost of our own.

(4) Reciprocity would check the growth of our manufactures by enabling the output of the enormous American concerns to undersell that of our smaller concerns and prevent the further establishing of branches of American industries in Canadian centers, in which Senator Beveridge estimated there is at present invested \$250,000,000 of United States capital, which prevention would deprive our people of new avenues of labor.

(5) Reciprocity would render innocuous the "British preference"; and as to this it is important to note that Sir Wilfrid Laurier, speaking in British Columbia last September, declared that no interference with this "preference" would be tolerated in any trade arrangement with the United States, reiterating this declaration in the Ottawa Commons in the opening hours of the present session.

(6) As the American tariff is now nearly twice as high as Canada's the republic should reduce it to the same level, as an evidence of good faith, before even negotiations for freer trade are seriously begun.

(7) Reciprocity would not necessarily mean cheaper commodities to the consumer, but simply enlarge the sphere of operations of the American trusts, for at present, with no duty on wire fencing, the price thereof, for Canada, is arbitrarily fixed by the American trust controlling the Canadian factories producing this material.

(8) The United States may abrogate this treaty as she did the last one, leaving Canada then to face the same problem as in 1866—that of finding new markets for the surplus products previously taken by the United States but now left on her hands.

Finally, reciprocity is opposed as unnecessary because of the increasing dependence of America on Canada's raw materials, as confessed by Mr. Whitney, of Boston, in his article in the October *Atlantic Monthly*, in these words: "If a reciprocity treaty on broad lines is not possible at the present time, owing to the attitude of the Canadians, why should we deny ourselves the advantages that would accrue to us from at once allowing the products of Canada's fisheries, farms, forests, and

mines to come here free of duty? These are things that we need and soon must have from some outside source."

SPECIAL INTERESTS AFFECTED

It will scarcely be disputed that this is a formidable array and makes the prospect for reciprocity by no means bright; nor is the situation improved by a brief study of the particular interests affected by the general propositions stated above, as will be seen by the subjoined summary!

FOOD STUFFS.—The Canadian farmer hopes for better prices for his products by selling them in America, but the effect would be to raise the rates for the consumer at home who clamors for a cheapening of the cost of living. The introduction of Canadian farm products into the United States, too, must lessen the prices American farmers would obtain. And yet, at the forty-fourth annual meeting of the National Grange at Atlantic City November 16-26, State Master Creasy, of Pennsylvania, chairman of the committee on agriculture, is reported to have asserted in his annual report, "that three-fourths of the farmers are in debt, despite the computations of the Agricultural Department in the contrary." Hence the difficulty of a Free Trade schedule in food stuffs.

COAL.—The mining of bituminous coal is one of Nova Scotia's largest industries, the royalties on the output forming one-third of the provincial revenue. Mine operators and operatives consider reciprocity a catastrophe for the province, and the local government can hardly be expected to view it favorably. American coal entering Canada is taxed 53 cents a ton, to protect the home product, and while reciprocity would give Ontario and Quebec cheaper coal, Nova Scotia contends that her people pay an extra charge on food stuffs and manufactures from these provinces to "protect" these industries, demanding that the abolition of duty on coal be followed by similar treatment for competing products.

FISH.—The fishing industry of the Pacific Coast is already largely controlled by Americans, as well that centered at Victoria and Vancouver as that prosecuted from Seattle and Tacoma. Many observers on the Atlantic seaboard fear the same result for that region under reciprocity, arguing that this would give American fishermen an advanced base in the Maritime Provinces to conduct their operations more successfully, and maintaining that it would be wiser to strengthen the barriers against them and trust to the rapidly increasing demand for sea food in America to provide ample outlets for the Canadian product and to effect the removal of the duty therefrom.

PULP WOOD.—American industrial interests desire free entry of Canadian pulp wood, but the rapid depletion of America's forest wealth had induced Canadian provinces to prohibit the export of this raw material, thus compelling its manufacture, with large employment of labor, within their territory. The "Crown" or public lands in each province are controlled by the provincial government, and as that of Ontario is Conservative, and therefore hostile to the Laurier cabinet,

while that of Quebec, though Liberal, is equally strong for this policy, the resulting impasse seriously affects the reciprocity negotiations.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.—The Canadian West demands cheaper appliances, contending that Canadian-made machines sell in America and Britain for less than at home and asserting that Canadian manufactures secured from the Ottawa parliament remission of the duties on steel used in making "parts" therefor, and then imported most of this raw material, formerly obtained locally; but made no reduction in prices to the farmer, merely increasing their own profits by the duty thus saved. Canadian manufacturers decry this agitation, retorting that the farmer pays no more for his necessities than twenty years ago, but gets 40 to 100 per cent. more on what he sells.

OBSTACLES TO TREATY-MAKING

These complications would almost seem to make reciprocity hopeless. Yet situations apparently as unsolvable have been coped with heretofore, though this one will probably tax the ingenuity of the negotiators to the utmost. Nor would all obstacles be overcome with the signing of an agreement, if this stage should be reached. Indeed, in some respects they would be only commencing. A draft treaty would then have to run the gantlet of two parliaments. Its ratification by the American Senate requires a two-thirds vote; and would enough Democrats be found willing, under existing political conditions, to assist the Taft administration by voting for a pact which might bring prestige to the Republican party? Moreover, this could only apply until March 4, and after that, with the Democrats controlling the House and probably able with the help of "insurgent" Republicans to dominate the Senate also, would "stand-pat" Senators assist the Democrats in approving such an accord, with both parties "playing for position" with an eye to the Presidential campaign of 1912?

With the Canadian ministry the position would be somewhat different, because if min-

isters pledged themselves to the agreement they could certainly force it through the Dominion Commons, though there are some who doubt if the Senate, while strongly Liberal, could be relied upon to confirm an agreement unless it was undisputably advantageous to the country. Prominent Liberal Senators, untainted by suspicion of personal motives, have declared against reciprocity; other prominent Liberal Senators are so closely identified with Canadian industries that they must necessarily take the same course, while the Conservative Senators are unanimously against a treaty and, except in western Canada, there is little popular sentiment for it.

Even the newspapers supporting the Laurier government, with one or two exceptions, are but apologetic at best in their seemingly perfunctory advocacy of the negotiations. Captains of industry working harmoniously with the cabinet in progressive policies generally, declare their opposition, and one notable personality stated his willingness to pay indefinitely the \$250,000 a year which the duties on coal represent to the enterprises in which he is interested rather than see existing business conditions altered by American competition. Even in western Canada, where the sentiment for freer trade is more pronounced and whence a delegation of five hundred farmers was to visit Ottawa in December to advocate improved trade relations with the United States, their policy was understood to be an enlargement of the "British preference" from 33 to 50 per cent., coupled with free import of farming machinery.

Such is the situation which will face the conferrees when negotiations are resumed at Washington early in January. And it will be interesting to see if their efforts bear fruit in a satisfactory accord or if the *pourparlers* break down and the two countries determine to continue their trade relations on the present basis, modified somewhat by the possible reduction of the American tariff independent altogether of a fruitless reciprocity agitation.





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MAKING OVER CHICAGO—THE PROPOSED BOULEVARD ON MICHIGAN AVENUE

THE LONDON TOWN PLANNING CONFERENCE

BY JOHN IHLDER

(Field Secretary, National Housing Association)

THE recent International Town Planning Conference in London (October 11-14, 1910) brought out an array of facts and opinions both interesting and valuable. Theorists and dreamers were there to present pictures of urban Utopias of the future, sentimentalists to call attention to the value and beauty of much that is old, and, like old things generally, possessed of that inherent perversity which makes them get in the way of the hustling, matter-of-fact utilitarian. And the utilitarian was there to prove his contentions by facts and figures. So, with its great exhibition of models, maps, and pictures showing what has been done in Germany, what is being done in Great Britain, and what is planned to be done in the United States; with its addresses and discussions by architects, civil engineers, social workers, and city officials from all parts of Europe and America; and with its visits to municipal workingmen's houses, garden suburbs, and garden cities in and around London, the conference presented a fair impression of what is being accomplished by

the civilized nations of the world in the effort to make their growing and problematic cities not only decent and wholesome, but attractive and inspiring.

Mr. Leonard Stokes, president of the Royal Institute of British Architects, under whose auspices the conference was held, said that its purpose was to interest the public and bring home to the general imagination the wastefulness of the present patchwork and hand-to-mouth building. For, he declared, if the people want good healthy towns, they will have them. So far as England was concerned the conference evidently fulfilled its purpose. Mr. John Burns, president of the Local Government Board, gave local municipal authorities permission to send representatives up to London at public expense. As a result the meetings at Guild Hall and the Royal Institute of British Architects were so crowded that overflow meetings had to be arranged.

The keynote struck by Mr. Stokes was repeated by several later speakers, notably Mr. Daniel H. Burnham, of Chicago, who

presided at one of the sessions. Mr. Burnham's great pictures of the glorified Chicago of the future were in some respects the most impressive exhibits at the Royal Academy. Perhaps the contrast they present to the Chicago of to-day led him in his address to dwell upon the need of arousing public interest and to declare that any physical plan the people want can be carried out.

Another American, Charles Mulford Robinson, of Rochester, N. Y., made a strong plea for the application of common-sense to street planning, and illustrated his idea of what should not be done by pointing to the city of Washington, America's first and, with the possible exceptions of Detroit and Buffalo, only example of thoroughgoing town planning carried into effect. Mr.

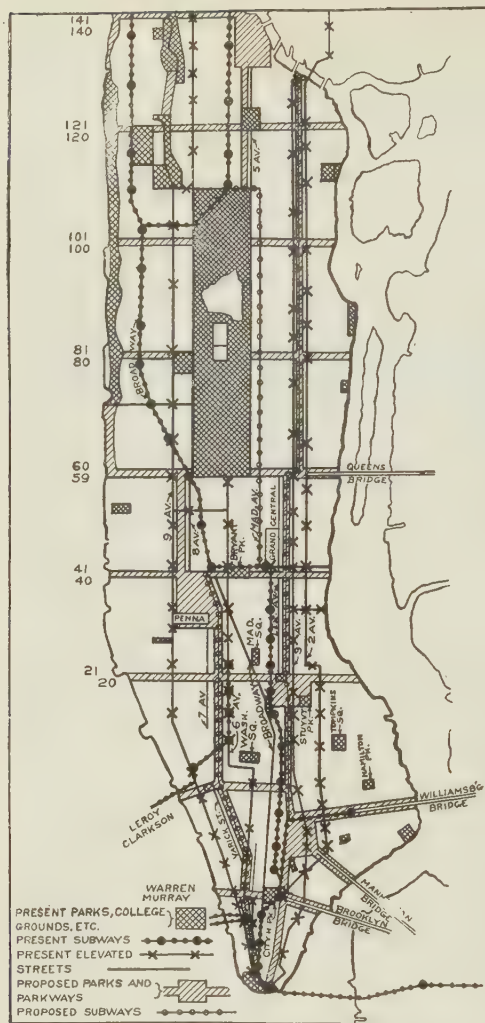


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PROPOSED BOULEVARD TO CONNECT THE NORTH AND SOUTH SIDES OF THE CHICAGO RIVER

(The boulevard is raised to allow free flow under it of east-and-west teaming traffic, and both Michigan Avenue and Beaubien Court are raised to the boulevard level. The raised portion throughout its entire length, from Randolph Street to Indiana Street, extends from building line to building line.

It is approached from the cross streets by inclined roadways or ramps)



PROPOSED IMPROVEMENTS IN NEW YORK CITY

Robinson said that there are two groups of changes necessary in our street planning: (1) The provision of long, broad, straight radial highways of easy gradient, which, shortening time and distance to the outer zones, will facilitate the daily ebb and flow of traffic and increase the area available for home building; (2) a rearrangement of the minor streets, adjusting them to the needs of the section which they serve. It was in this connection that he criticised the Washington regulation that no new street shall be less than ninety feet wide. For such a rule leads to great economic loss in municipal expenditure and to high rents. Aesthetically ordinary streets gain nothing by excessive width.

Mr. T. Adams, of the Town Planning Department of the Local Government Board,

attacked this street problem from a different point. His experience in Sweden and Germany, he said, convinced him that the tenement system of block dwellings was as much the result of the wide road as the wide road was the result of the tenement system. Under the English Town Planning law narrow side streets and wide main thoroughfares can be arranged for.

It is significant of the longer study Englishmen have given to town planning that the Englishman in this instance laid greater stress on the effect upon housing of good and bad street planning than did the American. And a little later a German, representative of the country where town planning has been most thoroughly studied, emphasized this difference. Prof. Rudolph Eberstadt, in describing the great plans which have recently been accepted as guides in the development of the Prussian capital, took occasion to poke a little gentle fun at his British hearers who, during visits to the fatherland, have been so impressed by certain spectacular features of German city building that they have quite missed their evil social effects. So, when the German town planner and housing reformer tells them, "We wish to do away with this system (tenements), pernicious for our people: we aim at the English home, the cottage, the individual house," the reply is, "Why, last night at dinner the Englishmen could not find words enough to praise this system which you would upset."

But despite this modest acknowledgment of having learned a lesson from England Professor Eberstadt ended with the declaration that Germany is the only land where one can study closely in connection town planning, street planning and the basis of social life, housing.

Other addresses at the conference were delivered by such men as Eugene Henard, architect of the city of Paris, W. E. Riley, architect of the London County Council, Professor Adshead of Liverpool University, and John Burns, president of the Local Government Board. At the last session Lord Kitchener described the building of the new Khartum on the ruins of the old native city left by the dervishes. In spite of such unusual difficulties as were presented by a population which could not understand the need of city building along sanitary lines, and which was instinctively distrustful of everything the English did, Khartum has been rebuilt in such a way that what was formerly a pest-house has become a town in which malaria is almost unknown.



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PRESIDENT TAFT AND COLONEL GOETHALS INSPECTING THE PACIFIC END OF THE PANAMA CANAL IN NOVEMBER

REALIZING THE DREAM OF PANAMA

RESULTS ALREADY ACHIEVED ON THE ISTHMUS ASSURE THE COMPLETION OF THE CANAL WITHIN THE NEXT THREE YEARS

BY GEORGE F. AUTHIER

IT is now possible to see the Panama Canal in process of building, and at the same time derive from such a view a picture of the completed waterway. January 1, 1914, will see commercial vessels passing from ocean to ocean, and as early as June 1, 1913, smaller vessels may be utilizing the canal. The date of January 1, 1915, remains the date set for the official opening, when a fleet of American warships will pass through the waterway, which will then be thrown open to the world marked "finished."

The time elapsing between January 1, 1914, and January 1, 1915, will be devoted to the task of "tuning up" the machinery so that no accidents to American warships can affect the confidence of the American people in the military as well as the commercial adequacy of the canal.

The recent visit of President Taft and that of the Appropriations Committee of

the House of Representatives, called marked attention to the progress of the work. While the American people have been clamoring to see "the dirt fly," Colonel Goethals and his corps of assistant engineers have been quietly devoting their army of something like 35,000 men to the task of successfully encountering the difficulties offered. Heretofore, the picture in the minds of the American people has been one of preparation, of a task in the process of evolution. There was presented to the President and to the members of the Appropriations Committee the picture of a work that had "set." Order has been evolved out of chaos, a matchless organization has been perfected by Colonel Goethals which works like a machine and makes use of every minute of time. The engineering problem involved in the taming of the turbulent Chagres River has been solved by the construction of Gatun dam,



MAP OF THE CANAL ROUTE, SHOWING LOCATION

the locks are in process of construction, and the only portion of the work which Colonel Goethals cautiously regards as still in an experimental stage is the excavation of Culebra cut, where slides are offering unexpected physical difficulties. But the only problem here appears to be one of time. In spite of it, the canal will be completed, not on time, but a year ahead of time, and within the contemplated cost of \$375,000,000.

An idea of the present status of the work may be obtained from the report of November 26, 1910, which showed that the excavation for the entire canal was 72 per cent.

completed; the Gatun locks were 44 per cent. completed, the Pedro Miguel lock 51 per cent. completed, and the Miraflores locks 5 per cent. completed.

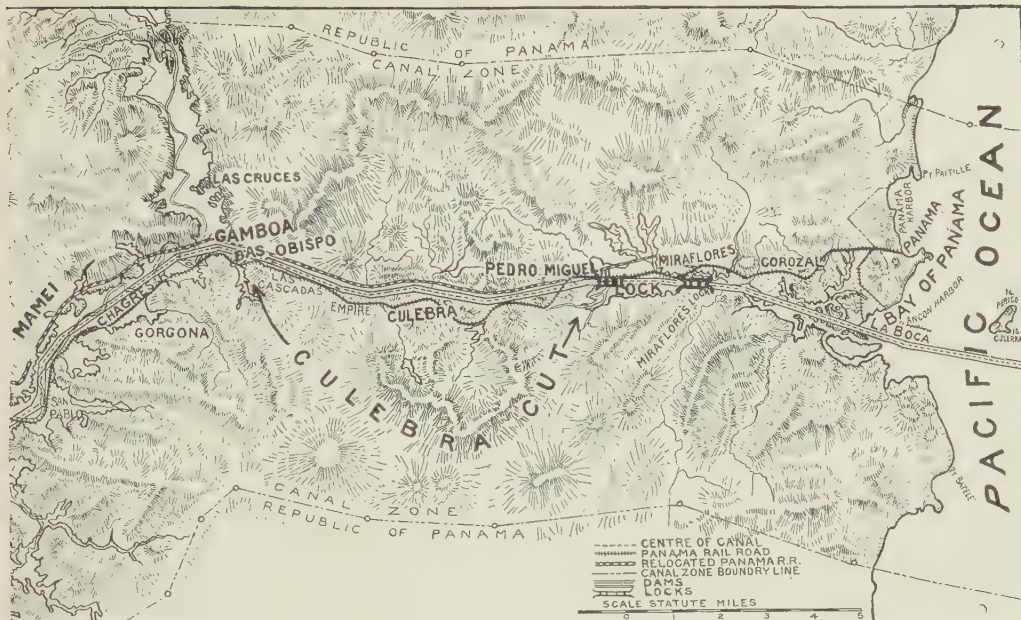
DOING TWO YEARS' WORK IN ONE

The ensuing fiscal year will see increased activity in the work of construction. The Isthmian Canal Commission has submitted estimates asking for an appropriation of approximately \$47,000,000, as compared with the appropriation of \$37,855,000 made for the present fiscal year. The purpose involved in this proposed increased appropriation is to concentrate practically two ordinary years' work in one. The machinery evolved for the construction has reached its highest stage of efficiency. Dredging will hurry the excavation work in Culebra. The contractors building the gates for the locks have agreed to deliver the leaves for the gates six months earlier than was anticipated in their contract. The locks will be completed by June 1, 1913.

In considering the progress of the work and the likelihood of its completion at the time mentioned, it should be remembered that most of the construction has been done in the past three years. The United States took possession of the canal in May, 1904; but the work of actually making the "dirt fly" did not begin until 1907. The three years that intervened were devoted to prep-



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COLONEL GOETHALS POINTING OUT TO THE PRESIDENT
SALIENT FEATURES OF THE CANAL WORK



OF IMPORTANT DAMS, LOCKS AND CUTS

aration. This involved the construction of houses for employees, the establishment of a food and water supply, sanitation, and the assembling of a plant. In 1907 the active work of excavation commenced. The total amount of excavation required to build the canal under the present system is estimated at 212,445,766 cubic yards. Of this amount, 29,908,000 cubic yards of excavation usable in the American plan had been completed by the French prior to May 4, 1904, leaving 182,537,766 cubic yards to be excavated by the American builders. The following table will show the manner in which the Americans are performing this Titanic task:

	AMOUNT EXCAVATED Cubic Yards	Monthly Average
May 4 to Dec. 31, 1904...	243,472	30,434
Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1905...	1,799,227	149,936
Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1906...	4,946,497	412,375
Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1907...	15,765,290	1,313,774
Jan. 1 to Dec. 1, 1908...	37,116,735	3,093,061
Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1909...	35,096,166	2,924,680

The work already done up to November 1, 1910, including the small portion excavated by the French, amounted to 151,207,921 cubic yards, leaving 61,237,845 cubic yards still to be removed. At the beginning it was thought that a total excavation of 1,000,000 cubic yards a month would be the maximum of efficiency, but the average of 3,000,000 cubic yards a month has been maintained for two years and the month of March, 1909,

shows the high record of 4,062,000 cubic yards. To properly appreciate the difficulty involved in such a record of accomplishment, it should be remembered that the rainy season extends over nine months of each year.

In addition to this record of excavation, the task of building the Gatun dam has been in progress, immense quantities of concrete have been laid in the locks and spillways, and the thousand and one other details of the work have been taken care of.

THE MAN BEHIND THE SHOVEL

This marvelous record of efficiency is probably due more largely to the perfect organization evolved by Col. George W. Goethals, chief engineer and chairman of the Isthmian Commission, than to any other cause.

When Colonel Goethals arrived on the Isthmus, he found an admirable transportation system arranged by his immediate predecessor, Mr. John F. Stevens, who had been engaged in railway construction, and he brought his ability in this line with him to the Isthmus. The initial problem of canal construction was transportation. The army engineers who have succeeded Mr. Stevens are generous in their praise of the work of their civilian predecessor.

Colonel Goethals took this plan as a basis, and has carried out its completion, until now one of the most perfect transportation systems in the world is being utilized, and a plant

is installed which is as efficient as the genius of man can evolve.

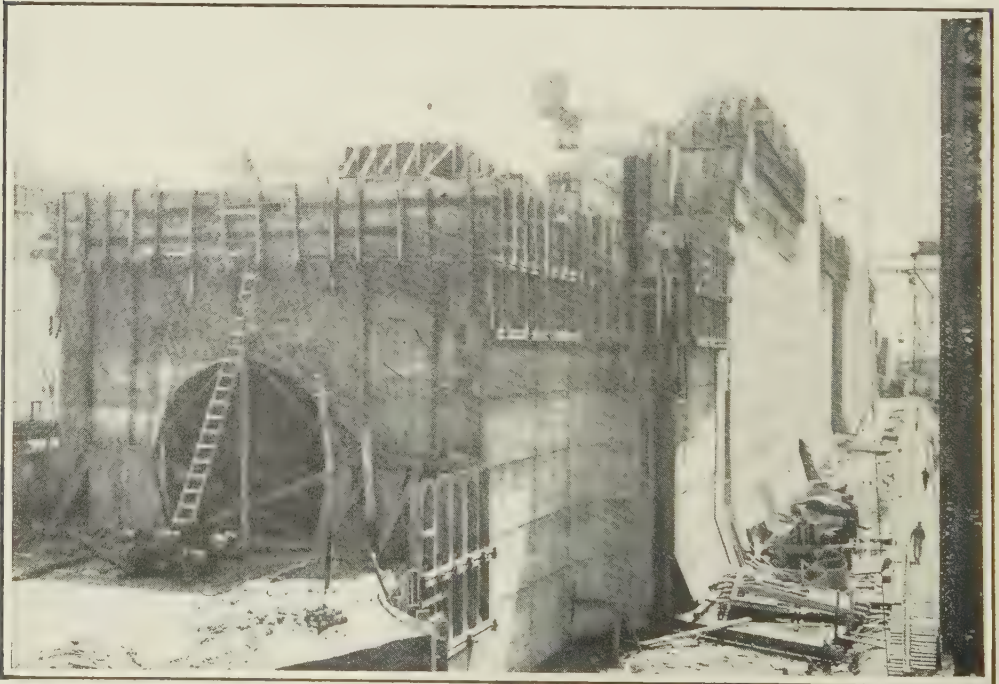
The military plan of organization which has been worked out aims to utilize this plant to its greatest degree of efficiency. Colonel Goethals has demonstrated the possession not only of engineering skill in meeting the problem of canal construction, but has shown himself the possessor of rare executive ability. To-day, he is the actual as well as the nominal head of the commission. He has likened his force to an army in the field, and no better simile could be found. Colonel Goethals is the commander-in-chief of this army. The Canal Zone is the scene of operations and the canal "job" is the enemy against which the army of 35,000 men, 2000 miles from its base of supplies, is directing its energies.

The result of the organization is the most complete example of paternalism in government ever known in the history of the world. Men are housed, fed, and cared for by the Government, which also looks after their personal, physical, educational, and religious needs. It supplies the schools, and pays the salaries of the ministers of the gospel. Of this entire organization, Colonel Goethals is the head and absolute chief, within a reasonable limitation of law. Each man, whether a skilled mechanic, a clerk, or a West Indian laborer, is a cog in this wonderfully smooth-

working machinery which is digging the canal and solving the problem of an international waterway that has been the dream of centuries.

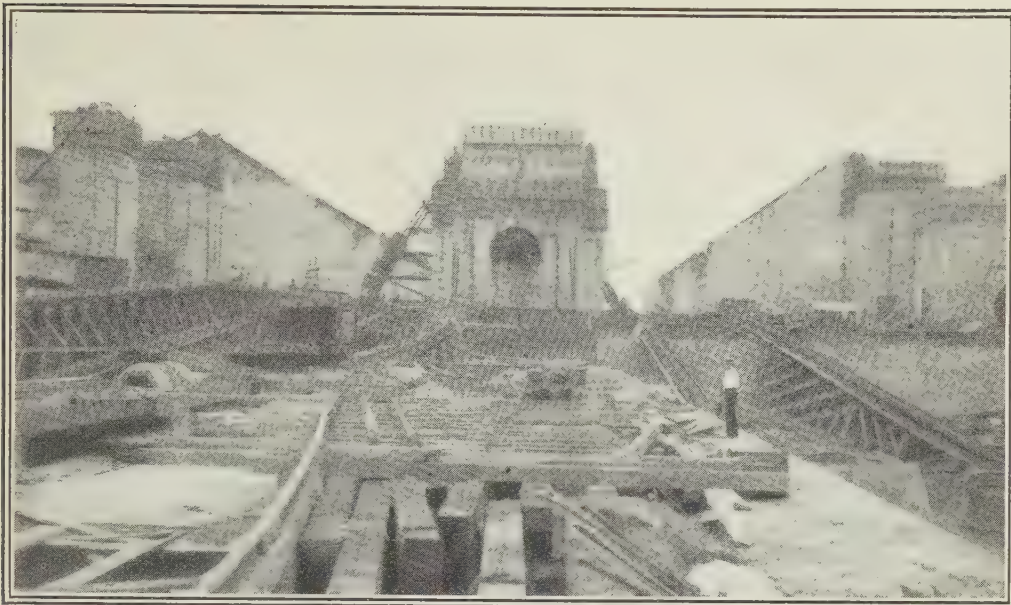
THE TRIUMPH OF SANITATION

While the record of actual excavation shows comparatively little accomplished in the first few years of occupation, much of the efficiency of the present working organization is due to the thorough preparation made at that time. The victory which sanitation has gained over the pestilent conditions of a tropical country has made it possible to solve the canal problem. To-day the Isthmus is as healthy a place as can be found anywhere in the tropics. A trip over the Canal Zone will show pipe lines running in every direction. These carry oil designed to eliminate the disease-spreading mosquito. Under the administrative direction of Col. W. C. Gorgas, the problem of sanitation has been worked out. The value of the sacrifice made by Dr. Lazear who gave up his life and of the devoted physicians who risked theirs in testing the mosquito theory of the dissemination of yellow fever, is shown to-day on the Isthmus. Yellow fever is unknown. Colonel Gorgas has applied the methods learned in Havana, and his success will be a lasting monument to him. Screens are in all of the houses on the



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THE CENTER CONCRETE WALL AT PEDRO MIGUEL



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VIEW OF GATUN, LOOKING SOUTH FROM FOREBAY, SHOWING CENTER CONCRETE WALL
NEAR COMPLETION

Zone, but they are practically unnecessary so far as protection against the mosquito is concerned, for the mosquito finds the problem of existence difficult and almost impossible on the Isthmus.

TWELVE HOURS FROM OCEAN TO OCEAN

According to a time-table of transits which Colonel Goethals has prepared, twelve hours will be allowed the slowest ship in passing through the canal. This allows three hours for passage through the locks. The canal, from deep water to deep water, when completed will be $50\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and the distance on land will be $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

In passing from the Atlantic to the Pacific side, the ships will enter the canal from Limon Bay, passing through a channel 500 feet wide to Gatun, a distance of about seven miles. Here it will enter a series of three locks in flight, and will reach at once the highest elevation of the canal, 85 feet, and will find itself on the surface of Gatun Lake. This is the immense lake formed by impounding of the waters of the Chagres River by Gatun dam and will cover an area of 164 square miles. Over this lake, steamers will move at full speed for a distance of 24 miles until they reach Bas Obispo, the entrance to Culebra cut. The length of Culebra cut is about nine miles, the minimum width of the channel being 300 feet at the bottom. At

Pedro Miguel, one lock will lower the ship to the level of $54\frac{2}{3}$ feet above the sea level. The descent from Pedro Miguel is to a lake $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles long ending in the Miraflores locks. Two locks will lower the vessel to the sea level. Passing through a bottom channel 500 feet in width, the vessel will then pass out to the Pacific, covering $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the sea-level channel.

This brief review of the physical characteristics of the canal is given to convey an additional picture of the progress of the work. It will be seen that the actual work of dry excavation is chiefly centered in the Culebra cut and in the foundations for the locks. The picture of the canal does not carry with it a view of continuous channel. The greater distance is over the surface of Gatun Lake. The actual visible channels are at the entrances on the Atlantic and Pacific sides and at Culebra cut.

THE GREAT GATUN DAM

While the visitor at the Isthmus is disappointed in not seeing more indications of an actual canal channel, he is compensated by the evidences of engineering construction, by the scenes of activity that meet his eye at every point, and by the spectacle of the locks, giant scrapers of stone, which rear themselves at the three different points mentioned. Gatun dam, in itself, is a disap-

pointing spectacle. It is so immense that it does not have the appearance of a dam so much as of a natural mound connecting the side hills at Gatun.

While a great deal of attention has been directed to this structure, it is really less of an engineering feat than has been generally supposed. The dam from end to end is 1.8 miles long and 1900 feet wide at its greatest width. The crest of the dam will be 115 feet above sea level, placing it about 30 feet above the normal level of Gatun Lake. The width of the dam at the 85-foot level, where it meets the crest of the lake, will be 375 feet.

The dam is semicircular in shape, meeting and including elevations or hills in its contour, which have been left intact, reducing the cost of construction. There can be no doubt of the ability of the dam to withstand the pressure of the impounded waters of the Chagres. The slope on the water side is so gradual that instead of the exertion of the pressure in anything like a direct form it will be directed downward instead of upward. In picturing the canal, imagine two outer structures, or toes, built of dump material from the canal. These "toes" are the framework of the dam, and continue from end to end. They permit of a fill between, about 860 feet in width at the bottom. This fill is made of impermeable material, pumped in by suction dredges, which pump a constant stream, 20 per cent. solid, filling in at the rate of from 300,000 to 400,000 yards of material per month.

In the middle of the dam is a spillway,

with a concrete floor, 300 feet wide, to accommodate the overflow from the lake. The spillway will be equipped with movable gates which will permit the engineers in charge to regulate the flow of water. In the wet season, the gates can be removed, permitting an extra flow of water, and in the dry season they can be closed.

The work on Gatun dam is nearing completion and will be ready simultaneously with the completion of the locks. The water is already beginning to collect in Gatun Lake and it is anticipated it will take about two years to fill the reservoir. Across the bed of the lake the Chagres River meanders, crossing the proposed channel about fifteen times. The Gatun dam has enabled the American builders to ignore this treacherous stream.

THE LARGEST LOCKS IN THE WORLD

In the construction of the locks the canal builders have had to meet novel difficulties. In the first place, the locks are the largest ever designed. They are constructed in pairs, and involve an immense amount of excavation and of concrete laying. Excavation of 5,500,000 yards of dirt is necessary for the construction of the twelve that will be built.

The locks will be approximately 81 feet high. The center wall has a width of 60 feet for its entire height. The side walls will be from 45 to 50 feet wide at the surface floor, narrowing at a point about $24\frac{1}{3}$ feet above the surface of the floor until they are 8 feet



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CLEARING MUD AWAY BY WATER PROCESS AT MIRAFLORES



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THE CONCRETE MIXER AT PEDRO MIGUEL

wide at the top. The interior chambers for the accommodation of ships will be 110 feet, usable width, and 1000 feet long, large enough to hold the biggest ship ever built.

In order to facilitate the passage of ships through the locks, intermediate gates will be placed in the lock chambers dividing the locks into chambers of 400 and 600 feet respectively. When a monster ocean liner passes through, the two chambers can be thrown into one. Most of the ocean-going vessels are less than 600 feet in length.

Through the center wall, about $42\frac{1}{3}$ feet above the surface, will be a tunnel, with three galleries. The lowest gallery will be for drainage, the one above for the use of electric wires used to operate the machinery, and the upper gallery will furnish a passageway for the operators.

Lateral culverts, eighteen feet in diameter, large enough to accommodate a train of cars and a locomotive, will allow the water to run, by gravity, to the lateral culverts which will pass beneath the floors of the locks. Holes in the floor about eighteen feet apart connect with these lateral culverts, allowing the water to flow upward, thus minimizing the oscillation that would otherwise result from too rapid an inflow. With both culverts turned

on, it will require about eight minutes to fill the locks. The holes permitting the water to flow upward into the locks will be controlled by valves of the Stoney gate type. They move on rollers, in frames, to reduce the friction. With the water turned on, these gates will bear a weight of 275 tons of water pressure.

The lock gates will be mammoth steel structures, 7 feet thick, 65 feet long and from 47 to 82 feet high. They will weigh from 300 to 600 tons each. Ninety-two leaves will be needed for the entire lock construction of the canal, with a total weight of 57,000 tons, fit appurtenances for structures that involve the use of 4,500,000 cubic yards of concrete and as many barrels of cement.

INSURING SAFETY IN THE USE OF THE LOCKS

In building the locks the canal builders have built for safety. The greatest number of lock accidents in the past have occurred through the use of their own power by vessels passing through. No vessel will be allowed to traverse the Panama locks under its own power.

Electrical locomotives will run along the tops of the locks, towing the vessels, the power



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THROWING MUD INTO THE DAM AT GATUN

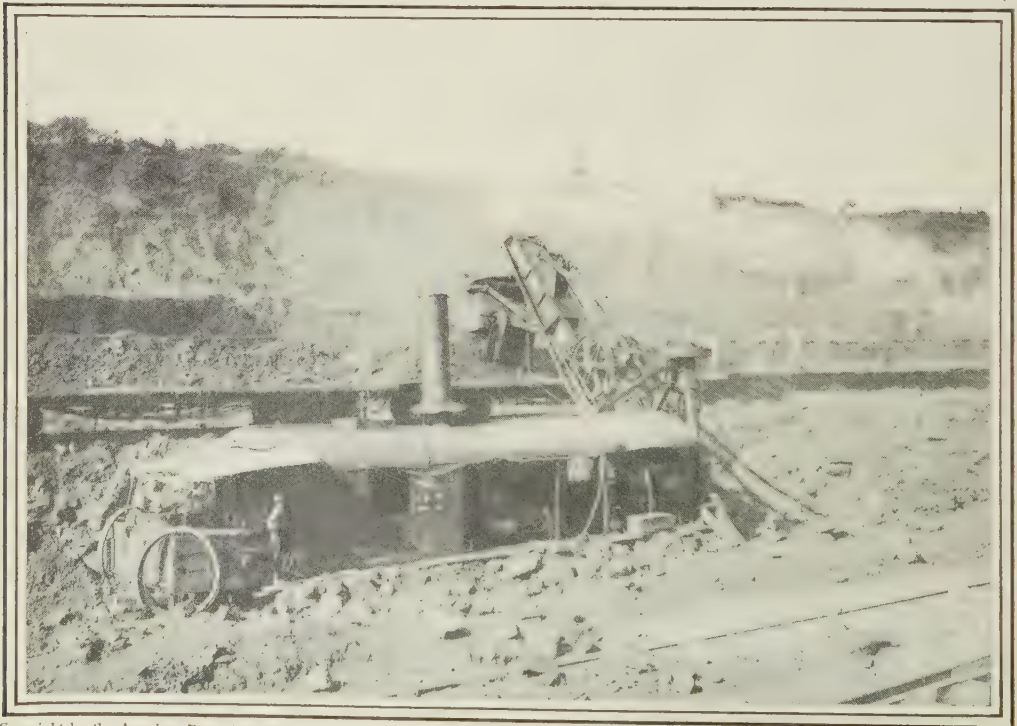
to be generated from the head made by Gatun dam and Lake.

Still other safety devices have been arranged. For example, double gates have been installed for simultaneous operation at the upper and lower end of the locks. Still another device for safety is furnished in a chain which lies along the surface of the water attached to capstans on the wall. This device, it is estimated, applying frictional resist-

ance at a varying rate as it develops, will stop a 10,000-ton vessel, moving at the rate of six miles an hour. When not being used, the chain will rest in a groove in the floor and can be raised at will. A third device is the use of a portable dam across the upper gates. This is in the form of a swing drawbridge with wicket girders which can be let down one at a time. All of these devices have been used successfully, but never before in lock construction have all of them been installed together.

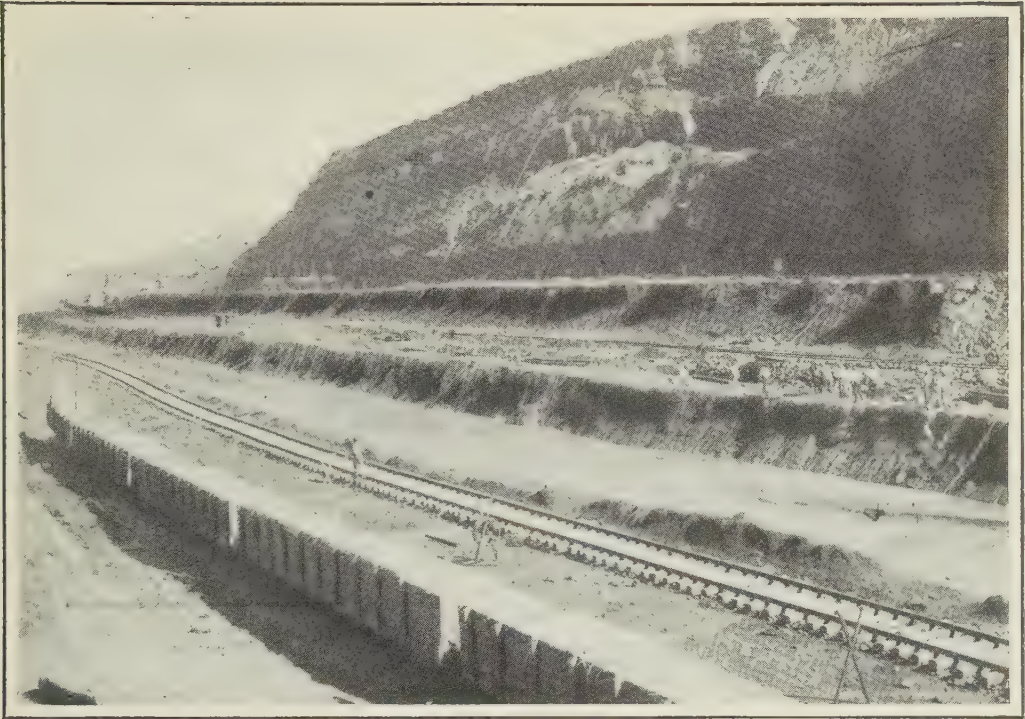
At the locks the visitor witnesses a scene of strenuous activity. He sees immense mixing plants, huge cranes carrying buckets over the walls, lowering cement and concrete at their various places. He sees steam shovels engaged in the work of excavation and everywhere men busy as ants, building structures that rival steel skyscrapers in their height and size, and far outreach them in the quantity of material used. At Gatun the upper lock is completed, the second lock is well under way, and the excavation for the third lock is practically finished.

From Gatun to Culebra there is little to see in the way of actual canal construction. One passes over the bed of Gatun Lake, in which little work will have to be done with the exception of cutting trees and lowering a few hills in the channel. The trip is made over the



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A STEAM SHOVEL AT WORK IN CULEBRA CUT



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THE CULEBRA CUT AS IT APPEARS TO-DAY

Panama Railroad, which will be submerged by the lake, a fact that has necessitated its relocation at a higher level, at a cost of \$185,000 a mile. This relocation line, with the exception of nine miles on the Pacific end, is now practically complete, and much of it is in partial use.

THE FAMOUS CULEBRA CUT

At Culebra cut, the visitor sees the great difficulty in the pathway of the canal. In entering the cut, one is reminded of the Royal Gorge in Colorado. The tips of Gold Hill on one side and Contractor's Hill on the other rise up ahead, and through the gorge already excavated one sees the work of excavation in actual progress. The cut is about nine miles in length and at either end it has been practically brought down to the proper level.

The elevation in the center permits loaded trains to run down grade both ways. When the Americans took over the work they found the French had made a narrow cut near Gold Hill, having lowered the surface by 140 feet. The Americans immediately started in to widen the cut to the proper dimensions and to remove the 153 feet still remaining in order

to bring it down to the proper level. At Empire, the highest level in the canal prism, there was still remaining about 85 feet in August last. This has since been reduced.

In order to protect the gorge from flooding, it has been necessary to parallel the sides of the canal prism with ditches or "diversions," which allow the flood waters to flow into the Chagres at Gamboa on the east side, and at Matachin on the west side. These drainage ditches, or diversions, themselves involve an immense amount of work. The diversion at Obispo involved the removal of 1,000,000 cubic yards of material.

HOW THE SHOVELING GOES FORWARD

The banks of the cut rise in terraces, making the different levels upon which the steam shovels work. In this gorge an army of men is at work. Constant blasting results in a series of detonations that seem to indicate the progress of a heavy bombardment. Trains loaded and unloaded are running back and forth carrying the spoil, while the steam shovels, working with almost human ingenuity, each one doing the work of 600 men, are constantly at work. From fifty to sixty of these huge machines are engaged in the

work of excavation, each equipped with dippers varying in capacity from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 cubic yards.

The earth is first blasted and then the shovel grabs in its capacious maw the loosened material, never hesitating even at a rock that seems as solid as Gibraltar. There is great rivalry among the steam-shovel engineers to see which can make the best record.

Preparing for the steam shovels are the men drilling blast holes in which to place the dynamite. The holes are drilled with air drills, supplied by one of the largest pneumatic air plants in the world.

It is here that the canal builders have encountered their greatest difficulty. Slides are constantly impeding the work and making additional excavation necessary. The French encountered these slides, and they continue to increase in volume as the canal prism is deepened. The best known slide is that of Cucuracha, just south of Gold Hill, where an area of over 27 acres is in motion. In 1907 the maximum movement of this slide was 14 feet in twenty-four hours. Other slides have developed from time to time. When they occur there is nothing to do but to start a steam-shovel gang taking out the earth as fast as it fills in. Over 1,000,000 cubic yards are still in motion and will have to be removed. While the slides offer difficulties, it is not expected they will affect the total cost and amount of the work by more than 1 per cent. No serious danger

from these slides is anticipated after the completion of the canal.

It is also in Culebra cut that the visitor obtains an idea of the immensity of the plant. Here he sees many of the devices installed to lessen labor and to enhance accomplishment. Some idea of the magnitude of the mechanical portion of the work may be gathered by the fact that 100 steam shovels are at work on the entire line; that the plant carries 4131 cars, 279 locomotives, 18 dredges, 39 barges, and 16 pile-drivers on the canal alone, with 68 locomotives, 56 coaches, and 1495 freight cars on the railroad.

At Porto Bello are immense rock-crushing works with a force of 700 men, preparing rock for the concrete plant at Gatun. At Gorgona are immense machine shops, while on other portions of the canal are various other works and plants which serve to keep this army of men busy.

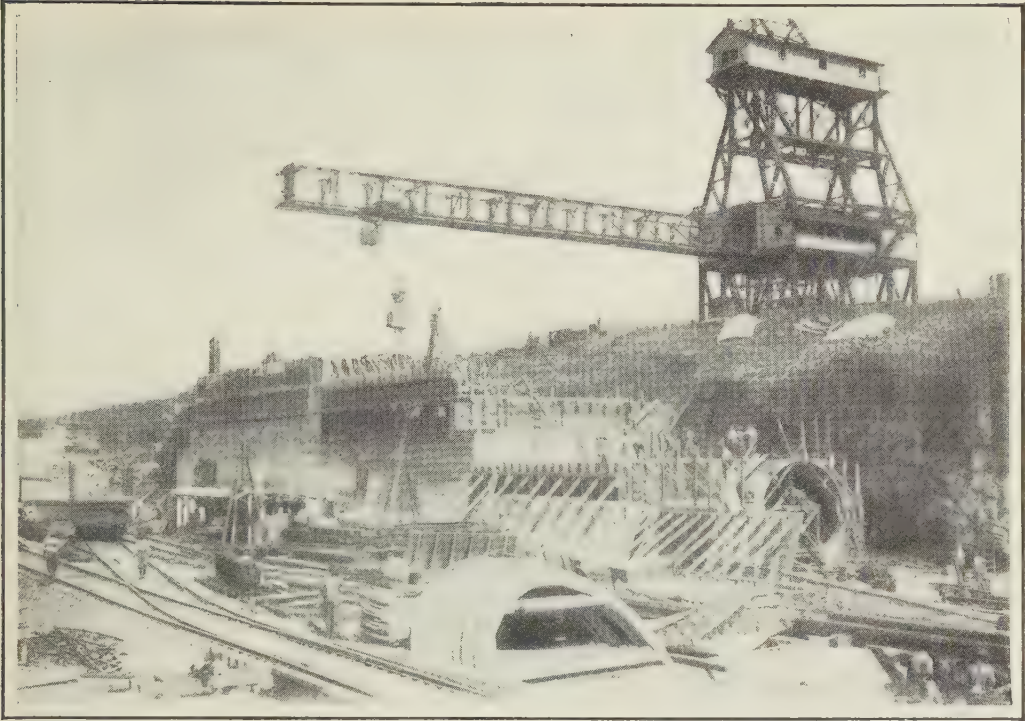
At Culebra one sees track torn up and laid down with seemingly reckless abandon. Over a mile of new track a day is not an unusual thing. To perform this task more expeditiously, a track-laying machine is used which does the work of 700 men. This is used especially on the dumps at Tabernilla, the largest one, and at other points where immense areas are being filled with refuse.

To unload the cars a steam plow is used, which is dragged along the tops of the cars, unloading the dirt loosened by the one million pounds of dynamite used monthly. The



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LOOKING THROUGH THE LOCKS AT PEDRO MIGUEL



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A GIANT CRANE LOWERING CONCRETE INTO THE SOUTH WALL AT GATUN

trains move backward and forward constantly, and only the President's special has been known to stop these constantly moving processions of cars carrying the spoil of Culebra. Much of the spoil is taken to Gatun dam, while some other portions are used in the breakwater that is being constructed at the Pacific entrance and the remainder is spread out on the dumps, where another device is used to scatter it after dumping from the cars. To operate this plant there is an army of 35,000 men, involving a pay roll of \$2,000,000 a month.

When the canal is complete breakwaters will protect both the Pacific and Atlantic entrances. Colon Harbor, on the Atlantic side, is open and unprotected. It will be enclosed by a breakwater, two miles long, extending northeastward from Toro Point Lighthouse. Another breakwater, about three quarters of a mile long, will protect the entrance channel on the east side.

The Pacific harbor is usually quiet, but to prevent the inflow of silt and to provide a dumping place for much of the Culebra spoil a breakwater is being built from Balboa, the Pacific terminus, to Naos Island, one of the several small islands in the harbor, four miles distant. These islands will probably

be used for fortification purposes, in case the policy of fortification is adopted. They are so situated as to prevent the approach of war vessels to a point where shelling can be effectively done. For the same reason, Miraflores locks were placed farther inland than was at first planned, in order that the locks might be out of shelling distance of the sea.

THE LABOR PROBLEM

In order to carry out this stupendous work Colonel Goethals and the Isthmian Canal Commission have met and solved the labor difficulty. In August of 1910 there were 45,000 men on the pay roll. Of these, 5000 were Americans. The remainder were Italian, Greek, and Spanish laborers, and colored laborers from Jamaica, Barbados, and other West Indian points. On September 28, 1910, there were 35,369 men actually at work. The discrepancy is explained by the fact that the West Indian laborer will never work so long as he has any money in his pocket. Of this number, actually working for the commission and not for the Panama Railroad, 4459 were on the gold roll, or on the roll which calls for the payment of wages in American currency, and

25,229 men were on the silver roll, or paid in Panamanian currency. The men on the gold roll include mechanics, skilled artisans, clerks, and officials. They are mostly Americans. By the distinction of the "gold employees" and "silver employees," the Government has solved the difficulty of the separation of the races. The signs over the eating houses, in the waiting stations, and in the railway cars, "for gold employees" and "for silver employees," indicate where the different races shall enter, with the elimination of any resulting discontent.

The generous wages paid to employees has minimized labor difficulties, although what may be the beginning of trouble was started when President Taft was on the Isthmus. Government employees cannot strike, but the boiler-makers, drawing 65 cents an hour (almost twice as much as they would receive in the United States), demanded an immediate settlement of their difficulties. The President refused to make an immediate answer, and they resigned, giving the required five days'

notice. Later they were ordered to perform certain duties and refused on the ground that under the terms of their agreement they were not required to do so. Colonel Goethals immediately discharged them. The complaint of the boiler-makers was the same as that of all hourly men. They were receiving 65 cents an hour, with "time and a half" for overtime. They were also receiving fifteen days leave of absence and thirty days sick leave, with the usual privileges, which, in the case of married men, is computed to be worth \$45 a month additional. They wanted six weeks leave of absence. After his return President Taft issued an executive order, allowing hourly men thirty days leave of absence, with pay.

UNCLE SAM'S REGARD FOR THE WELFARE OF CANAL EMPLOYEES

In addition to drawing a much higher salary than he could obtain in the United States, the Panama employee finds his lines cast in pleasant places. The Government looks upon him as a ward. He is provided with quarters,



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TESTING THE STONEY GATE VALVE

(These valves will control the flow of water from the lateral culverts into the floor of the locks in the canal. The valve is the thin structure between the concrete testing stand and the corded pig-iron on top. The testing wall was built for the purpose of testing the frictional resistance of the water that will rest on the valve when the lock is filled with water. The pig iron, looking like cord wood in the picture, weighs 275 tons, the exact weight which the pressure of water will exert. The tests were for the purpose of determining the mechanism, the frictional resisting power, etc. The valves are made of steel, 10 feet 8 inches wide by 18 feet 10 inches high)

a modern house in the case of married men; his house is furnished, he receives free medical attendance and medicine, free fuel, free water and light, and ice is delivered at his door at cost, and free hospital service. He is eligible to membership in any of the social clubs, the Government furnishing the clubhouse with bowling alley, pool and billiard tables, superintendents and stewards, for which he pays \$10 a year, the money being used by the club for the purchase of books, magazines and other appurtenances. If he belongs to a church, he finds the church furnished and the preacher employed. He has free books, free schools and free school supplies. His children are taken to the schools and returned to their homes in conveyances. If they attend the high school, they are given monthly trip passes over the Panama Railroad to the high schools at Ancon and at Gatun.

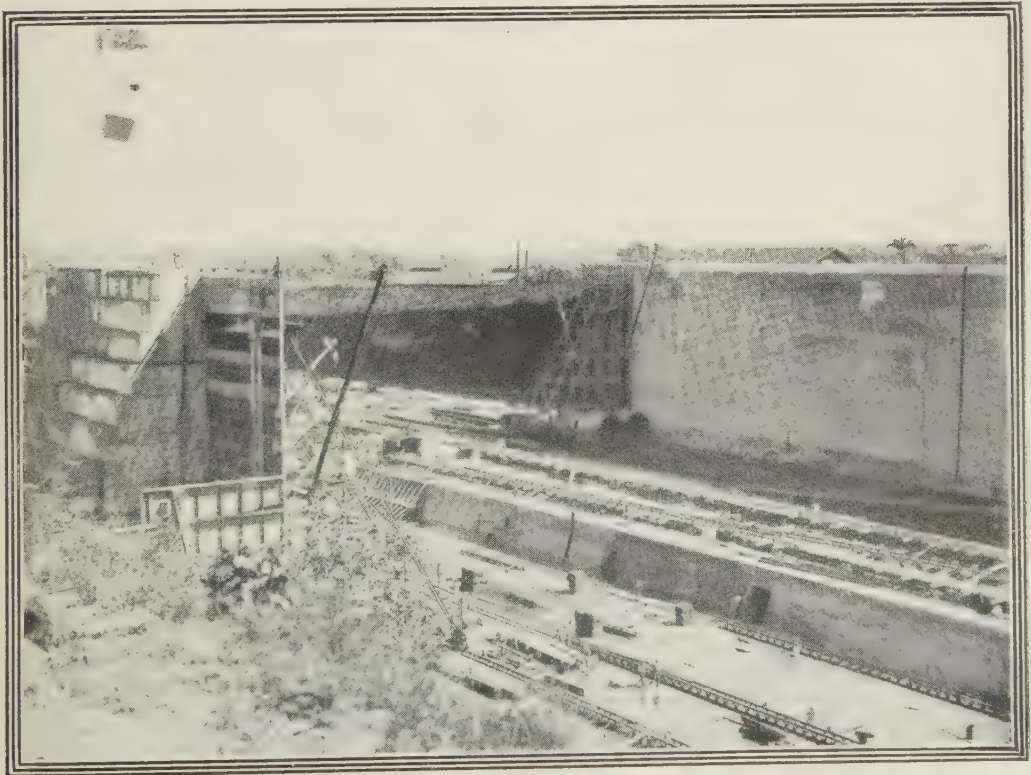
Through the commissary department, the high cost of living is eliminated. The American employed on the Isthmus eats beefsteak of a finer character than is usually obtained at home, and at less cost. The commissary department, under the management of Major

Wilson, runs special trains across the Zone, carrying fresh vegetables, fresh meats, fresh eggs, and at a lower price than would have to be paid in New York or Chicago.

CANAL ADMINISTRATION

Already the future administration of the canal is under discussion. As a result of his visit, President Taft has recommended a toll charge of \$1 per net ton register, which is a cut rate of 68 cents as compared with the tolls charged by the Suez Canal, and which, if adopted, may result in a commercial war between the Panama and Suez routes for the ocean commerce of the world.

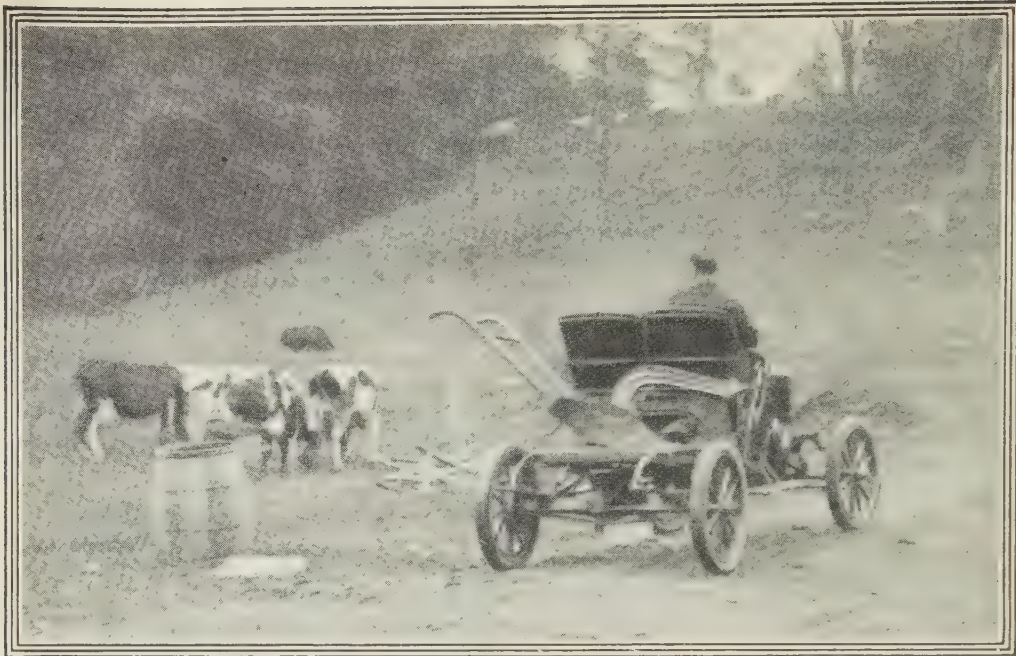
The progress of the construction work has also brought the question of the fortification of the canal to the front. The War Department has submitted an estimate and asked for an appropriation of \$19,000,000 for fortification, with an additional \$2,000,000 for a proper naval establishment. President Taft is committed to the proposed policy of fortification and the two questions will be thrashed out by Congress this winter.



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THE MIDDLE LOCK OF GATUN DAM

(Showing the full depth of the Canal and bottom, all completed)



PUTTING THE AUTOMOBILE TO GENERAL FARM USE

FARMING WITH AUTOMOBILES

BY GEORGE ETHELBERT WALSH

STEAM tractors have been employed for a good many years for heavy industrial motor vehicle work in nearly all parts of the world, but with the exception of tractors for plowing on our big Western ranches the use of these machines has been very limited in this country. Now that the explosive engine has reached a high stage of development, the gasoline tractor has appeared as an important factor in our agricultural life. It promises in a way to make revolutionizing effects in the planting and harvesting of our great crops and in the transportation problems of the rural districts.

The gasoline tractor is designed to meet both industrial and agricultural conditions of the country, and its work is almost as wide and varied as the conditions of trade and commerce. The automobile trucks are rapidly taking possession of the streets of our cities both for light and heavy hauling, but they are not intended to meet the requirements of the day in the rural and country districts, where hauling of heavy loads for long distances over all kinds of roads is the important issue. In England, tractors are in use designed for hauling gross loads of six and seven tons on ordinary macadam roads

graded up to 1 to 8, and, by the use of spuds affixed to the wheels, the tractors can haul trailers behind of from three to four tons. These English gasoline tractors can extricate themselves from soft ground or travel over very rough and uneven ground. The machines have the advantage over steam tractors both in the cost of fuel and in weight. The weight of fuel is about one-eighth of that of coal, and a further gain in weight is in the amount of water carried.

The English tractors are intended likewise for hauling agricultural machines, and are readily adapted in a semi-combined fashion for a great variety of farm work, such as hauling and operating plows, mowing machines, reapers and binders, and for driving threshing outfits, chaff cutters, grinders, and sawing equipments. The tractors are mounted on three wheels, all of which are adapted for propulsion, but the third is driven from the balance gear of the differential shaft. No one wheel can slip when rounding a corner unless the third wheel slips also, and, as the fundamental point of agricultural traction is grip on the ground, no great weight is therefore necessary for this type of tractor.

From actual experience these tractors have shown that from one and a half to two gallons of fuel they are able to operate for one hour a threshing machine, mow two acres of grass, mow and tie nearly two acres of grain, plow nearly one acre, or haul three tons six miles. There are three speeds provided for either direction— $3\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$, and 7 miles per hour.

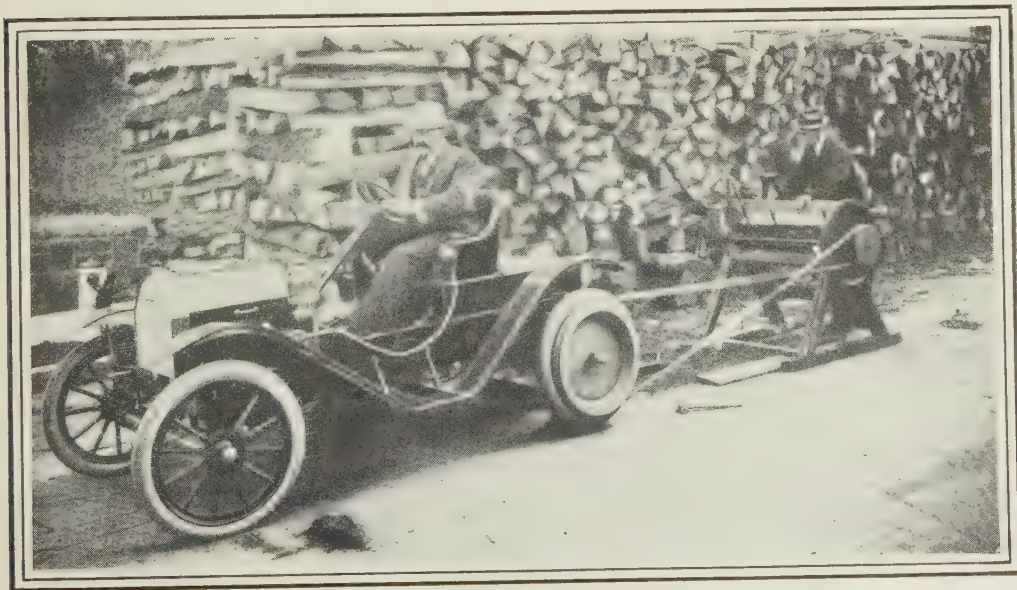
In the United States and Canada the gasoline tractor appeared later than in England, but it has multiplied far more rapidly in the last few years. Relatively speaking, the percentage of crops planted, harvested, and hauled to market by the tractors is very small, but it is increasing with marvelous rapidity. The question of power on the farm is to-day of crucial importance. The portable gas engine or tractor is revolutionizing agricultural conditions just as surely as the use of general farm implements did a quarter and half a century ago. Thousands of farmers are annually equipping their farms with gas engines of small and large power to operate grindstones, pump water, saw wood, chop fodder, grind feed, operate churns, and cream separators, and to furnish light for the barns and homes. On the larger farms and ranches the gasoline engines are doing the plowing, harrowing, mowing, threshing, and hauling of produce to market.

Where 75 per cent. of the rural community is given to mixed farming, combining dairying, hog raising, and the fattening of choice stall-fed beef cattle, the small portable gas

engines of from 5 to 10 horsepower are the most popular. The engine is mounted on wheels and can readily be transported to any part of the farm to grind feed for the cattle, cut corn for ensilage, pulp roots, thresh grain in the barn, and milk the cows and run the churns and cream separators. A five-horse-power engine will, for instance, thresh from 200 to 250 bushels of wheat a day, and only two men are required for the operation of it.

In regions where medium-sized grain farms are cultivated, with a crop of from 6,000 to 15,000 bushels, the problem is and always has been how to do the threshing with the least number of men and at the proper time. The gasoline portable outfit of from 12 to 30 horsepower has solved this problem for thousands of farmers. Many farmers of this class are equipped with portable tractors of from 30 to 35 horsepower, which have good hauling power and are sufficient to handle a good-sized separator fitted with both self-feeders and stackers, and also baggers. The engine is used also for plowing and much other work on the farm. A 12-horsepower engine is powerful enough to handle a 28-inch separator without feeder when a carrier instead of a wind stacker is used. This outfit may answer for the smaller farm, but not for the larger ones where the help problem is of such vital importance.

A comparison between the old-fashioned steam method of operation and a portable gasoline engine running a separator with



IMPROVED PORTABLE SAW-MILL FOR FARM USE



AN AUTO DOING DRAUGHT-HORSE WORK IN FRONT OF A CORN-CRIB

(The farmer can make this machine take the place of a small engine for sawing wood, shelling corn, pumping water, chopping feed, and churning, besides serving as a vehicle)

self-feeder and wind stacker may be summed up as follows:

STEAM	
Engineer, per day.....	\$4.00
Fireman, per day.....	2.50
Man and team hauling water, per day.....	5.00
Total.....	\$11.50

GASOLINE	
20 gallons of gasoline at 25c. per gal.....	\$5.00
2 hours of man's time each day at 25c.....	.50
Total.....	\$5.50
Saving in favor of gasoline engine.....	\$6.00

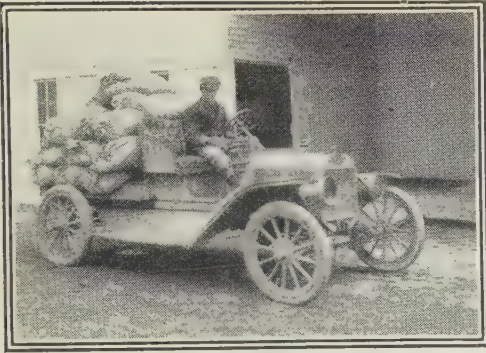
The size of the fuel and lubricating bills depends partly upon the grades of oil. Most of the tractors are designed to burn gasoline, kerosene, alcohol, and any low-grade oils of various kinds. In Iowa and other central Western States the farmers use low-grade kerosene oil known as Southwestern distillate, costing from 5 to 7 cents a gallon. This fuel comes from the Kansas and Oklahoma oil fields. The gasoline used in this section is a non-illuminating oil, and costs from 12 to 14 cents a gallon. At these rates the cost of plowing with a 22-horsepower tractor in a test of eighteen shifts was \$3.137 for every 17½ acres plowed. The ground had been idle for some time, and it was plowed

shortly after it had been wet and soggy. The vegetation was rank and heavy, presenting most difficult conditions for plowing. The cost of from 17 to 18 cents per acre included only oil for fuel and lubrication.

COMPARATIVE COST IN PLOWING: HORSE, STEAM, AND GASOLINE

Throughout the States of Kansas, Nebraska, Oklahoma, and parts of Texas, Colorado, and New Mexico, traction plowing with gasoline outfits is quite common, and the lack of rainfall for a large portion of the year makes the ground so dry and hard that horse plowing is often practically impossible. In this region it costs the farmer with the horsepower to plow land the following: Four horses, ten hours, \$3.40; one man and board, \$2. This outfit will plow five acres at a total cost of \$5.40 or \$1.08 per acre. This outfit will also break 2.5 acres of prairie sod at a cost of approximately \$2.16 per acre. These figures may vary a little throughout the corn belt and Northwest wheat country, but they represent a good average. The great problem has been to reduce the cost of preparing the soil for the crops. Anything that will lessen this materially will mean a great boon to the farmers.

In most parts of Dakota where gasoline is



STARTING FOR THE MILL

delivered on the farms at a cost of 16 cents per gallon, the gas tractor for plowing has already proved a great factor in the agricultural problem. Here the land is plowed with gasoline tractors at a cost of 80 cents per acre. This is based on an allowance of 3 gallons of fuel to the acre; two men running the outfit at \$3 each, and for board of the men. The tractor will average 25 acres a day. That the cost of the fuel is one of the determining factors in the situation is evident from the following comparisons of a steam and gasoline tractor.

In central Montana, where sod-breaking is very heavy, and coal at the mines can be had for \$3 per ton, and a mine is often closer to the field than a railroad station, the cost of plowing 25 acres a day with a steam tractor is \$25, or \$1 per acre. Gasoline in this same region sells at 22 cents per gallon, and the cost of doing the work with a gasoline machine averages \$1.20 an acre. Shift the scene to almost any part of the Dakotas where coal costs on the average \$7 per ton and gasoline 16 cents per gallon, and we find that it costs \$1.32 to plow an acre by steam and 80 cents by gasoline. These figures are based upon actual operating costs, and will vary only slightly in different localities.

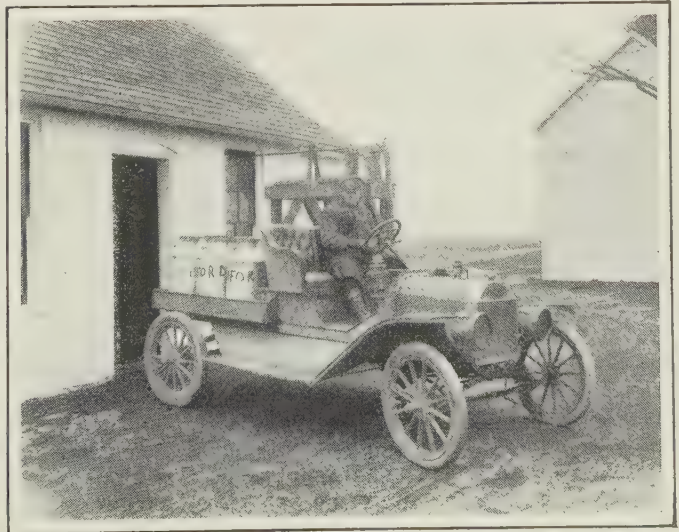
In competition with the horse the gasoline tractor on the big farms and ranches has an enormous advantage. In the matter of endurance, the horse cannot on the farm do more than from thirteen to fifteen miles of pull a day and retain its

health, nor work more than from six to eight hours a day. A gas tractor will make seventeen miles of furrow travel in ten hours, and can double this in twenty-four hours, including all extra turns. A horse working six hours a day under heavy loads would wear out in ten years. The average farm tractor has a useful life of more than ten years when carefully looked after.

One man in the field may handle from four to six horses, developing thereby from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 horsepower. Two men on a tractor developing as much power as 25 horses will do from ten to twenty times as much work as the man handling the horses. The farm-working horse requires $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of grain and $6\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of hay for every hour of actual work during the year, costing for feed alone at prevailing prices from 4 to 5 cents per work hour. In return the animal gives practically only a little more than half a horsepower. The steam traction engine uses approximately a ton of coal per horsepower hour at the draw bar costing from 2 to 4 cents, according to price of coal. The gasoline engine tractor under the same conditions costs approximately from 2 to 3.5 cents, depending upon the price of gasoline.

USEFULNESS OF THE GASOLINE TRACTOR

But the modern tractor is used for nearly every variety of farm work, and not limited to plowing and threshing, and its adaptability to these varying conditions makes it almost, if not more, flexible than the horse. It can



CARRYING MILK TO THE CREAMERY



HAULING A LIGHT LOAD OF HAY

be used for pumping water for stock and home use, which the horse could not well do, and it can be harnessed up in tandem to operate a number of machines simultaneously. It is no uncommon sight in the West and Northwest to see gasoline tractors operating a grindstone, feed chopper, fanning mill, and sawing outfit all at once. When the work is finished the tractor is hitched up to a trailer loaded with hay or grain, and it travels at the rate of three to seven miles with several tons of produce to the distant railroad station or market. As a pumping engine the gasoline engine is far ahead of the windmill, and as a hauling machine it is far ahead of the horse.

IMPROVING THE COUNTRY ROADS

Many of the gas tractors of the West are in one sense home-made. They consist of ordinary 10 and 30 horsepower gasoline engines mounted on broad-tired wheels of some discarded farm machine. These tractors are then used for hauling heavy loads of hay and grain to market. Good roads are not so essential to this work as appears at first sight, and the tractors instead of injuring the roads tend to improve poor highways. The wheels of the heavy tractors are broad, and they pack down the soil of the wheel track firmly. Roads of inferior condition where tractors have traveled over them for a few months in the fall of the year when crops are harvested show a firmer roadbed than many macadam roads. The farmers and road-builders of many of these farming sections have discovered that all they have to do to make good roads is to fill all hollows and muddy places with stones broken the size of an egg. The heavy tractors roll them into the soil, and if more stone is put on each spring a natural

hard road is obtained without the cost of expensive rolling and laying. On macadam roads in the rural districts of England the broad-tired tractors have not been found injurious, even when trailers are hauled behind them. The chief desideratum is that both tractors and trailers shall have tires at least five or six inches wide.

On the general-purpose farms of a dozen States of the West and Northwest, the gasoline engines are engaged in putting the small grains in the ground in the spring, plowing, discing and harrowing for corn, hauling loaders and wagons in the haying season, harvesting the small grains and hauling wagons when stacking, hauling and spreading manure, plowing and seeding in the fall, cutting corn and filling silo, running the threshing machines, cutting corn fodder or hauling corn huskers, hauling the crops to market, running the wood saw, running the hay press and the feed grinders, and pumping water and furnishing light for barns and houses. These and many other things are being done by portable engines and gas tractors in the farming regions of this country.

SAVING TIME IN HAULING

Farming by automobile is thus not exactly a fanciful idea, but a practical application of the automobile engines and equipments for every-day agricultural work. In addition to this many automobiles of the regulation type and of special design are employed by the farmers of the West for both business and pleasure. Thousands of light automobile trucks and delivery wagons are used by the farmers for hauling almost daily in the harvest season farm produce of a perishable nature to market. A trip of from ten to twenty miles is easily made with a light load of perishable goods. The saving in freight and express is a big item to consider. The truck farmers near our large cities are adopting the automobile delivery wagon, for to them it saves time in delivery over the old system of hauling by horse and truck. The farm automobile is bringing the cities closer to the farms and opening up a wider region for supplies. The farmer with a good automobile delivery truck is closer to the market to-day, when living at a distance of twenty miles, than another living six or eight miles from town if dependent upon the ordinary horse and truck. The annihilation of space for the farmer is thus a big consideration. It enables him to deliver produce in person at the markets and get back to the farm early in the forenoon. In addi-

tion to this he has the pleasure of a spin, and something to look forward to on Sundays when recreation is in order.

In the last year the biggest purchasers of automobiles in four of our Western States lived in the rural districts or in small towns and villages. About 60 per cent. of these purchasers were farmers, or what might be called near-farmers. In four other Western States 40 per cent. of the buyers of automobiles were out-and-out farmers or stock breeders, and 20 per cent. of the purchasers in five other States belonged to the same class. There is little wonder that manufacturers of the West are designing special machines for the farm and rural trade.

The story is not complete without adding that nearly one hundred thousand gasoline engines, ranging in size from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 40

horsepower, are annually purchased by farmers for use in operating about everything from a churn and sewing machine to big threshing machines. The gasoline engine of small horsepower is adapted to a farm of any size. It is the only power that can cover the whole field as well as the horse. The small farmer could not afford to own and operate a steam engine, but a chicken farmer or small fruit farmer can afford a 2, 3 or 5 horsepower gasoline engine. The wonderful flexibility of the engine thus makes it of the greatest practical value to the greatest possible number of people. In other words, the gas engine in one form or another is rapidly and steadily revolutionizing farm conditions from one end of the country to the other. It is not a dream of the future, but an actuality observable upon tens of thousands of farms.

THE AUTOMOBILE IN FIRE SERVICE

BY HERBERT T. WADE

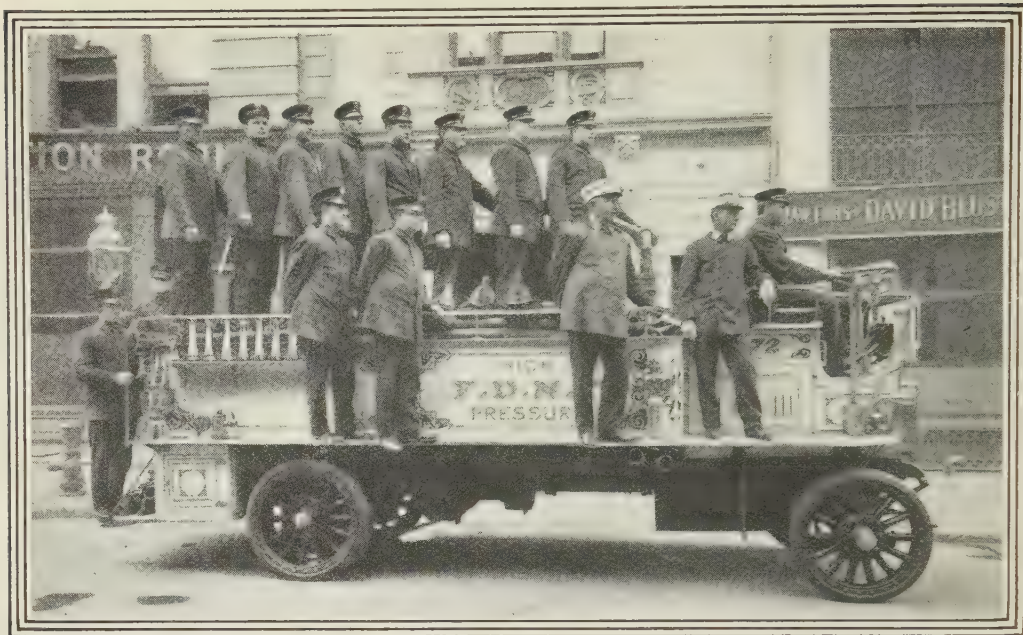
THE automobile has scored a distinct triumph in fire department service. Today all progressive fire departments are adopting or are considering motor-driven apparatus, which finds application not only in the largest cities, but in the rural and suburban districts, where anything like adequate fire protection hitherto has been impossible. Thus from New York, where most of the heavy hose wagons in the territory covered by the high pressure system soon are to be motor-driven, to the suburban town where a chemical engine or a combination fire engine and hose wagon can be sent over country roads at a speed of thirty or forty miles an hour, the automobile has established itself on the score of efficiency and economy.

Displacing the horse, with a surprising saving in the cost of maintenance, automobile apparatus is now working many innovations in modern fire department practice, for at the same expense vastly increased protection is possible, and more units and men can be concentrated at the scene of fire in much shorter time than previously, making it often possible to bring a fire under control before it develops to serious dimensions. Thus with increased speed for all classes of apparatus, it seems probable that larger and more powerful machines can be used, for the size and power of fire engines, extension ladder trucks, and water towers hitherto have been limited

principally by the weight that three horses could draw at reasonable speed.

The economy of motor-driven apparatus is of course apparent. With no horses to feed, shoe, and otherwise care for, and with fuel and lubricating oil consumed only when the machine is in actual use, the saving on the score of maintenance is extraordinary. Added to this there is the gain in space in the firehouse due to the elimination of the horses with their forage and other stores, so that two pieces of apparatus, if desired, can be kept in less space than was formerly required for one, while the quarters of the firemen are much pleasanter and more sanitary. As a result of these economies many towns and suburban villages are now able to install really effective fire apparatus capable of affording a large measure of much-needed protection to the surrounding country, where previously the expense of keeping the necessary men and horses for a limited field of operation would have been prohibitive. So universal is the tendency to acquire self-propelled apparatus that some consideration of the leading types already developed is not without interest.

In the equipment of a fire department the steam fire engine is usually considered the most important piece of apparatus, the power of the individual machine depending upon its size, which, as we have seen, is limited by the hauling capacity of three horses under



THE PIONEER MOTOR HOSE WAGON OF THE NEW YORK FIRE DEPARTMENT

(This wagon is the prototype of five others now building for use in the high pressure district. It carries forty-five lengths of heavy hose, and its annual cost of maintenance is little more than the shoeing of one of the three horses used with a first size horse drawn wagon. The motor wagon has greater speed and carrying capacity)

ordinary conditions of pavement or road. To draw such a machine trained horses are used in the larger cities, and in towns of smaller size teams are temporarily hired from a nearby livery stable or otherwise secured. Under such conditions the range of operation of the fire engines even in good weather is limited, as to both distance and speed, and with snow or ice it is seriously restricted. Steam-propelled fire engines have been used, and are still employed in a few fire departments, but their success never has been pronounced and in New York City they have been abandoned for many years.

With modern gasoline engines, however, it is quite different, and the successful use of these motors with commercial vehicles for heavy loads and for speed early suggested their availability for fire apparatus. Simply to provide tractive power for an ordinary steam fire engine or hook and ladder truck, an automobile chassis with engine of considerable power can be used in place of the front wheels and horses with but little change in the remainder of the machine, just as is done with some heavy coal trucks. This in no way interferes with the existing system or practice but merely gives an efficient and economical substitute for the horses, with a gain in power and speed. Such an arrangement constructed

recently for a second-size fire engine of the New York Fire Department consists of a three-cylinder gasoline engine of the valveless type of ninety horsepower, with a chain drive. This arrangement is to be installed, provided it meets the conditions of the contract, together with a motor hose wagon of the type described below, so that the New York officials can make a thorough trial under city conditions in a busy district of a complete motor company. The success of this experiment is awaited with general interest, as if it is found practical the plan is likely to meet with universal adoption in fire departments during the transition stage to a high pressure basis with a central pumping station or until gasoline engines are altogether used.

MOTOR HOSE WAGONS

But where the steam fire engine has been practically supplanted by a high-pressure service with independent mains and hydrants for fire use, the motor wagon for carrying the heavy hose has been proved especially useful and far more economical and efficient than the horse-drawn tender. For almost two years such a motor-driven hose tender has been in constant use by one of the most active companies of the New York Fire

Department. It carries forty-five 50-foot lengths of the extra-strong hose required for the high pressure, amounting in weight with the other accessories and firemen to about 6000 pounds. Used under all conditions of weather and pavement and ready for instant service, never once has this machine failed, and the annual expense for gasoline, lubricating oil, and repairs is little more than that for shoeing one of the three horses required for the older type of tender.

The speed is greater than with horses, in fact the motor wagon is capable of forty miles an hour, a rate as unnecessary as undesirable in crowded city streets, and once a fireman is trained as a chauffeur the driving is much easier and safer. The wagon carries all the essential tools and adjuncts, and mounts behind the driver's seat a special turret nozzle to which several hose lines from the hydrant may be "siamesed," in case a powerful stream of water is to be delivered. In proof of the complete success of this piece of apparatus it may be stated that five similar motor wagons are being constructed for use in the high-pressure district of New York City.

The initial cost of the motor tender is about \$6700, as compared with \$2000 for the regular large-size hose cart and three horses, but the care and feeding of the latter amount to at least \$600 per year. As the average effective life of a fire horse in active service is but five years, \$200 must be charged off annually for depreciation of the team. This is practically nothing in the case of the automobile so limited is its actual mileage. Conse-

quently in four or five years the motor wagon in addition to giving more efficient service virtually pays for itself.

When the conservative tendency of the New York Fire Department is considered, due naturally to its heavy responsibilities and the enormous values it must protect, and particularly in view of the present economical and efficient administration of its affairs, this decision to adopt so many motor vehicles for the high-pressure service is most significant. Even further than this the New York department is prepared to go, and among other machines specifications have been prepared for a motor-driven truck for an aerial ladder seventy-five feet in length. These call for a combination gasoline-electric drive where a gasoline engine runs a generator which supplies current to an electric motor at each wheel of the truck. The control is at the steering wheel and with a foot throttle.

There are also under construction for the New York Fire Department two 1½ ton motor supply trucks for ordinary service, but available for the rapid transport of fuel for the engines at any large fire. This coal is kept in barrels ready to be loaded and can be sent for as needed.

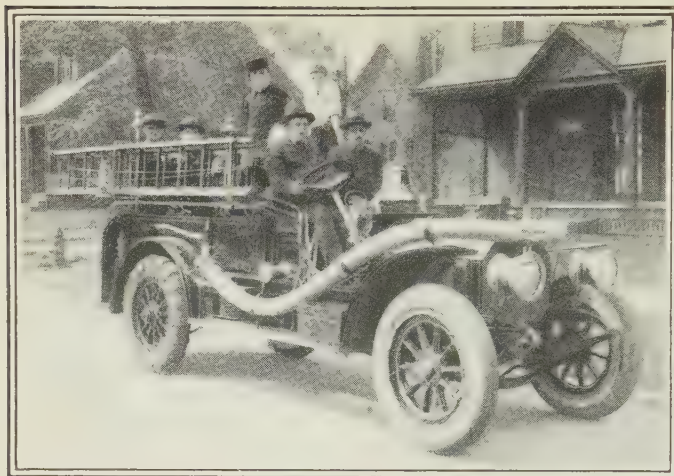
MOTOR APPARATUS FOR THE SUBURBS AND SMALLER CITIES

The apparatus just described is all of considerable size and power as used by a large fire department where the adoption of innovations is apt to be slow. In the suburbs and smaller cities motor fire apparatus is now ex-



A MOTOR-DRAWN AERIAL LADDER TRUCK

(The Seagrave extension ladder here illustrated has been used successfully by the Vancouver, B. C. Fire Department. A motor chassis takes the place of the front wheels and horses)



COMBINED MOTOR FIRE ENGINE AND HOSE WAGON

(The Webb engine shown combines a high-speed automobile and a pumping capacity equal to that of a third-class steamer)

miles an hour that can be maintained for five or six miles and over reasonable grades. Such a machine often can reach a scene of fire in outlying districts sufficiently early to be of service.

After the initial outlay (now about \$7500 for the best of these machines as compared with about \$5000 for a third-size steam fire engine) the expense of maintenance is practically nothing, and a small house is able to accommodate one or even two of these engines. The chauffeur is the engineer and in a town where there is a volunteer fire department he may be the only paid employee. These

tensively employed and is recognized practice for many conditions of service. Most important of these machines is the combination engine which has been developed within the past five years and consists of a powerful automobile capable of high speed and of carrying sufficient hose of ordinary size together with a rotary or reciprocating pump which can be connected with the engine when the latter is uncoupled from the driving gear. New York City contract requirements demand for such an engine a speed of thirty miles an hour with a load of 4500 pounds and a pumping capacity of 700 gallons per minute against a pressure of 120 pounds, or 420 gallons per minute against a pressure of 200 pounds. The New York Fire Department contemplates the purchase of such engines for suburban use, and there are several machines now on the market and in use the manufacturers of which confidently believe can meet these requirements. Such a machine in pumping capacity is equivalent to a third-size steam fire engine but carries on it six firemen and hose and can be used not only in connection with a city water service, but in the country can draw water from a well or pond.

ADVANTAGES OF SPEED

Most important after economy of maintenance is high speed—not the racing speed which without adequate reason has been demanded by certain fire departments and has led to several serious accidents, but a useful and regular speed of twenty or thirty

combination engines are finding their way into the fire departments of large cities, particularly for residential sections, as they can respond promptly to alarms scattered over considerable territory. In city service where these engines are used the approved practice is to rush them out on the first alarm and to follow with a steam fire engine or hold one or more such engines in reserve for a second alarm.

It can hardly be said that for all purposes so far as pumping capacity is concerned the gasoline combination engine to-day is the equivalent of the steam fire engine of the same rated capacity, but by its speed it puts the firemen in a position to deal with a fire in its incipency and at the same time to protect a much wider field. Except for the built-up portions of the larger cities, it is the general opinion of firemen that these combination engines can be fully recommended, especially as improvements are being made in the pumping machinery so that this soon will be as efficient as the driving mechanism.

After the combination engine the next piece of automobile fire apparatus to be considered is the motor vehicle carrying one or two chemical tanks and a supply of small hose for extinguishing fires with carbonic acid gas generated by chemical action. These chemical engines are very useful in dealing with a fire at an early stage, particularly in dwellings, as the water damage, often greater than that of the flames, can be avoided. Many types are built and are in active use, from those which carry also the regulation hose for the steam engine following, the scaling ladders, nets, and tools in addition to the chem-

ical equipment, to those where the chief object is to bring a number of firemen to the ground at the earliest moment, it being argued that a few trained firemen with axes and hooks reinforced with chemical hose, arriving in season, are often quite as useful as more powerful apparatus. While for the majority of alarms a chemical engine suffices, yet there is considerable difference of opinion as to their value and of course they can accomplish little or nothing in any serious situation.

FLYING SQUADRONS

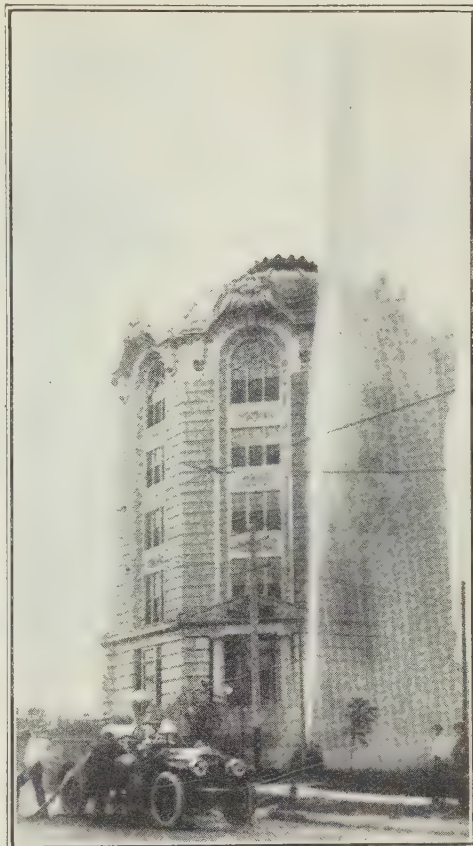
An interesting development made possible by the automobile is the emergency or auxiliary squad formed of firemen stationed at a central station but despatched at high speed to any district on receipt of an alarm anticipating or reinforcing the regular companies due. This plan originated in Holyoke, Mass., where a wagon drawn by horses was used for a flying squad, and now with satisfactory motor vehicles has been adopted in a number of cities where reasons of economy restrict the number of regular firemen. For all purposes but the largest fires or a conflagration this scheme has been found to work admirably, though of course it tends to reduce the total number of men to a dangerously low point in view of some great emergency.

Somewhat similar to such squads are the fire patrol or salvage corps maintained by the insurance companies, which respond with men and tarpaulin covers to save property and reduce the water damage. For this work the same considerations of speed and economy have led to the use of motor wagons which have an increased carrying capacity for covers, and, with no horses to be watched, release an extra man to enter the building.

The use of automobiles by fire chiefs brings to the scene of fire at an early stage the most experienced and skilled officers and their trips at racing speed through large cities are familiar metropolitan sights.

LOW MAINTENANCE CHARGES

While motor apparatus involves a greater initial expense, yet all things considered this is not the most serious item in connection with a fire department. The maintenance of horses and men is a large outlay and often prevents many small cities and towns from installing fire apparatus which they need most seriously.¹ Particularly is this the case in



From *Fire and Water Engineering*
A COMBINATION MOTOR FIRE ENGINE AT WORK
(Test of a Robinson Motor Fire Engine at University City, Mo.)

many of the suburbs where costly villas and cottages, country clubs, hotels, or other valuable buildings of highly inflammable character are to be found. Once a fire starts these are practically at the mercy of the flames, but prompt assistance can be rendered by automobile companies, even from some distance, and the fire, if not extinguished at once, often can be confined to the building where it originates.

With the successful and extended use of the automobile and the application of the gasoline engine to so many purposes, it is not strange that in the few years automobile fire apparatus have been in use it should have gained so important a place. That this use is bound to develop seems assured, as not only is increased and better fire protection afforded to many localities, but to others it enables some protection to be given where previously nothing of the kind was possible on account of the expense.

¹ One firm of fire apparatus manufacturers for \$45,000 will install four combination engine and hose wagons, two chemical engines, and a chief's car which will cover four

times the area covered by horse apparatus with greater efficiency at an annual saving of \$16,500 over the maintenance cost of the latter.



KOSTER BLUE SPRUCE, AS GROWN IN THE NURSERIES AT BOSKOOP, HOLLAND

(This stock is developed from our own Colorado blue spruce. See picture on opposite page.)

FOREIGN-BORN AMERICAN TREES

HOW OUR OWN NATIVE TREES ARE PROPAGATED FOR US IN EUROPE

BY MABEL SMITH

IT is not generally realized that a large percentage of the trees planted in this country have been imported from Europe.

There are nurseries in this country which grow a few native seedlings, like the western catalpa and white pine, but these are mainly for reforestation. As a matter of fact, most of our shade trees and evergreens and all of the grafted and budded varieties come from Europe. Even our native trees, such as the American red oak and the Colorado blue spruce, are propagated abroad. The propagation of young trees is a form of intensive farming which has been developed to its highest state in France, Holland and England.

Owing to the milder climate in Europe and more frequent rainfall, the cuttings and seedlings root there more quickly and make a rapid growth. The difference in the cost of labor in this country and Europe, moreover, makes it cheaper to import young trees.

Planting, transplanting, budding, grafting, and weeding require a great deal of manual work. In Holland they hire boys to do the weeding for sixteen cents a day, while their most experienced men get less than our common laborers.

Another advantage the foreign nurseries have is the length of their transplanting season. In France and Holland there is seldom more than six weeks in the winter when the ground is frozen too hard to dig trees. Planting is begun in the fall and continued with only this slight interruption until May. This gives the planters six months to send out orders and to do their transplanting. In this country we have only four—two months in the spring, one month late in the summer for evergreens, and one month in the fall for deciduous trees.

But, while the European nurseries have the advantage of us in growing small trees, condi-

tions in this country are more favorable for developing large specimens. Small trees require a great deal of labor, but are grown close together and do not need much ground. Large trees, on the other hand, do not require as much attention, but they must have plenty of room to develop. Labor is cheap in Europe; good land is expensive. The largest trees in the Old World nurseries are not over eight years old. In this country they require several years of cultivation before they are sufficiently developed to be planted out permanently.

Last summer I began my visits to the European nurseries at Boskoop, Holland about midway between The Hague and Utrecht. We motored there from the capital, as there is no railroad and the trip by canalboat, though undoubtedly interesting, is slow. We were fortunate in having a sunny day, for Boskoop in the sunlight is dazzling. Think of a town of 1250 acres that contains six hundred nurseries! As far as one can see are solid masses of blue spruce, golden evergreens, red and purple Japanese maples and rhododendrons of every shade from white to dark purple. The Boskoop nurserymen are so fond of color that they even extend it to their houses, which are painted pink, blue and yellow to match the trees. The coloring would be almost more than one could stand if it were not for the little greenish-brown canals which run through the nurseries in every conceivable direction and relieve the landscape.

If these canals are a relief to the onlooker by softening the brilliant coloring, they are more in the nature of a blessing to the nurserymen. The greenish-brown stuff on them is not scum, but a form of vegetation which when dried makes a wonderful fertilizer. As every nurseryman has as much canal as he has land, he can keep his soil enriched at no expense.

The reason for the unusual development of the small area around Boskoop is the peculiar formation of the ground. At one time it was all under water and the present soil is composed of rotted water plants and other vegetation. Evergreens and rhododendrons make a wonderful growth in this soil. It is very heavy and clings to the roots. The Boskoop nurserymen can transplant their evergreens in the middle of the summer, and if they find that their rhododendrons are making too rank a growth they can put a spade under them and lift them up. In ordinary soil this would kill the rhododendrons, but at Boskoop it merely checks their growth.

Although the nurseries are so small they are exceedingly prosperous, as they raise only valuable trees. Their specialty is Koster blue spruce, which is the most expensive evergreen grown. It is a grafted form of our Colorado blue spruce and has been developed in Boskoop from its natural silvery color to a brilliant electric blue.

As all the Boskoop nurseries grow practically the same stock, they have, to avoid too



THE BLUE SPRUCE TRANSPLANTED TO AMERICA

(The trees are larger than any produced in Holland)

much competition, divided their trade. Certain nurseries sell only to America, others to Germany, others to England, and so on. One advantage of this method is that the "American" nurseries grow only trees hardy in our climate and one is spared the sorrow of admiring a variety only to be told that "it is not hardy in the States."

There is not a weed in all the nurseries. This is not due so much, in my opinion, to the Dutch habits of cleanliness as to the fact that there is no room for weeds to grow. The trees are planted as closely together as possible even up to the nurseryman's very doorsteps.

The nurseries all have propagating houses where thousands of young grafts are ready to be planted out as soon as everything is grafted; there is no room for common seedlings. Anything is sold to make room. They cannot afford to keep anything in these nurseries more than two or three years, as they must have the ground to plant again. At one nursery I was shown evergreens two and one-half feet high as though they were quite the largest specimens that existed!

The village of Boskoop is very interesting. It is entirely given over to the nursery business. Every one not employed in the nurseries works in one of the factories where they make the packing-boxes, tubs, and labels. The town boasts of three horticultural societies, and a Royal Botanical School where embryo nurserymen from all over the world go to study.

One must go to Boskoop for fancy evergreens, but to Oudenbosch for deciduous trees. About fifty years ago the Looyman Nurseries, at Oudenbosch, furnished the trees for the Bois de la Cambre, Brussels. These trees have grown to be the finest specimens in any park in Europe. Since then the Oudenbosch nurseries have specialized in growing trees for park and avenue planting. They have developed a great many new varieties, such as the red horse-chestnut with flame-colored flowers instead of the former pale pink, and a wonderful grafted form of our American scarlet oak.

The Oudenbosch trees seem large compared with those in the French nurseries. You buy them by the height or diameter instead of by age, but the largest are not more than ten or twelve feet high.

France supplies nearly all the very young trees, not only for America, but for all Europe. The principal nurseries are at Orleans. The soil there is very sandy and is especially suited to propagating. The nurseries all grow the same stock, seedlings, cuttings and grafts of every variety of evergreen, deciduous tree and shrub. Of the millions of trees grown there, not one is more than four years old.

The Orleans nurseries are all very much alike in appearance and are characteristically French in their combination of economy and beauty. The ten or fifteen acres belonging to each nursery, instead of being divided into blocks for the different varieties of trees, as is usually done, are planted in a solid mass with one path leading through the middle. Many blocks would require many paths, and thousands of seedlings can be grown in the space occupied by even the narrowest path. But they atone for the inconvenience of having to walk sideways between the rows of little trees by the beauty of their main path. This is permanently planted with large specimens of their most beautiful ever-



LONDON PLANES IN AMERICA

(This shade tree is used almost entirely in the cities of England. It will thrive when planted in pavement)



MISS EVELYN SMITH



MISS MABEL SMITH

THE MISSES SMITH AMONG THEIR TREES AT AMAWALK, NEW YORK

greens,—green, gold, and blue,—and pillars of climbing roses. Where wind-breaks are needed they are formed by beautiful evergreen hedges.

Most of the Orleans nurseries have branches twenty or thirty miles away where land is cheap, and there they grow their larger deciduous trees, from three to six years old. They are very successful in growing the American oaks and a few other deciduous trees, but they do not transplant their trees often enough and do not bestow the care upon them that is given in Holland. Nor are their evergreens as fine as those in the English nurseries.

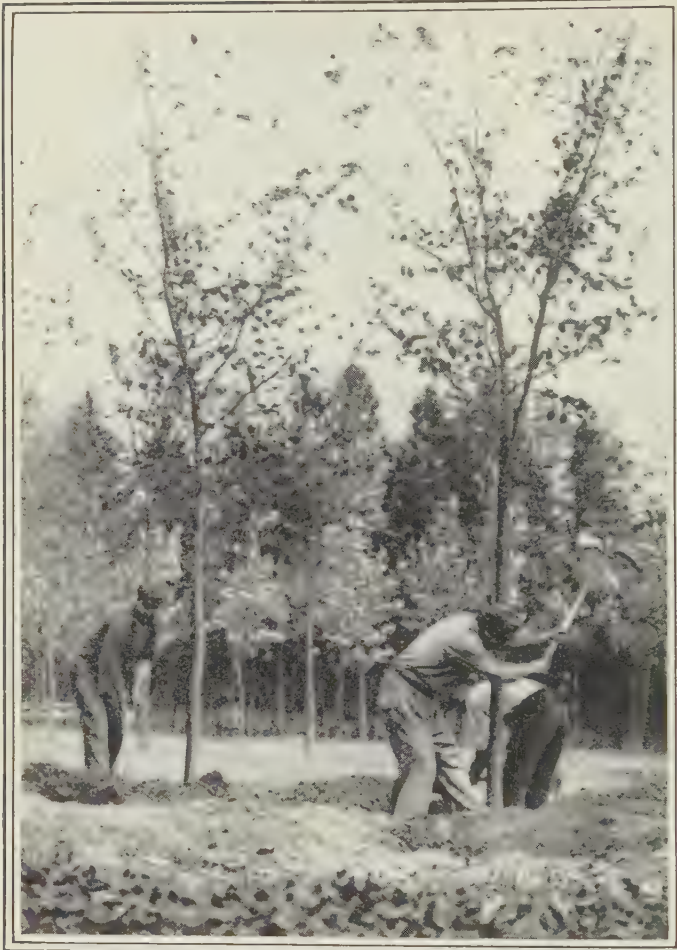
I wrote from Paris to the principal nurseries of Orleans, France, that I would arrive on a certain date. When I reached the station there was a smiling person waiting, who informed me that he was the English-speaking member of the firm. It appears that he is always sent when an English or an American visitor goes to the nurseries. He proudly informed me that he had spent four months in England, and at the end of that time had translated the firm's catalogue, of more than 200 pages, into English. No wonder he de-

scribed one variety as "a graciously weeping tree, with flowers of a violaceous rose."

They have no propagating houses at Orleans as they have at Boskoop. Their cuttings and grafts are grown under glass bells like those used for ripening melons. There are about a dozen little trees under each bell, and solid acres of bells. Their cuttings are rooted under sand which they cart from the nearby river Loire.

The general effect of the nurseries is that of millions of little trees, all so very small as to be hardly distinguishable. They have an elaborate system of tagging and labeling, without which I am sure the nurserymen themselves could not tell one variety from another. Their packing houses are arranged with a separate compartment for each variety, and the trees ordered are dug during the fall and winter and put into the proper compartments. Late in the winter the planters begin their packing, and, as this is their busiest season, such work is usually done at night.

They are nothing if not courteous at the Orleans nurseries. When I said I wished to



MOVING LARGE ELMs FOR THE BUFFALO PARKS

"evergreens" in England. They are "conifers," which, strictly speaking, means cone-bearers. When an Englishman speaks of evergreens, he means either rhododendrons or holly.

There is no use in going to the English nurseries unless you are prepared to do a great deal of walking. The first nursery I visited was very beautiful around the office, but it looked disappointingly small. There were some beautiful large specimen trees and a few blocks of evergreens, nothing more, and I was told that this was only one of a series of branch nurseries spread over the surrounding hills.

I asked to see an evergreen, the Douglas spruce. "Oh, they're about half a mile up that lane," and up we trudged. When I asked for pines, "They are on the other side of that hill to the west, about a mile and a half," and so on.

You could drive by many of these nurseries without noticing them, for they are surrounded by

see their large trees, which were twenty miles away, they sent for an automobile, which took us, accompanied by "the English-speaking man," the twenty miles in three-quarters of an hour. It was a beautiful ride. The country is absolutely level and the road has not a curve in its entire length.

The principal English nurseries are in Surrey, about twenty miles from London. Their finest trees are evergreens, although many of the most beautiful of these are not hardy in our climate. One must be careful not to call them



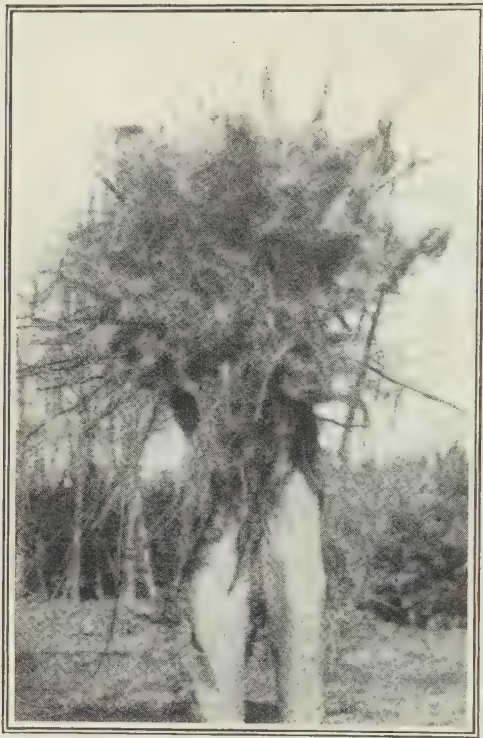
THIS TREE WAS BROUGHT FROM ENGLAND FOUR YEARS AGO
(It was one of 700 packed in a case 12 feet long, 5 feet high, and 4 feet wide)



BEECH HEDGES, IN AN ENGLISH NURSERY, USED AS WIND-BREAKS



A FIELD OF RHODODENDRONS IN AN ENGLISH NURSERY



ROOTS OF A TREE THAT WAS TRANSPLANTED FROM
ENGLAND

beautiful holly and beech hedges eight to ten feet high.

Although the principal stock in the English nurseries is evergreens, they are very successful in growing certain deciduous trees, especially the hard-wood varieties like the oaks and beeches. These make a very rank growth in England. At one nursery they were unwilling to sell a block of thrifty young oaks because, as they said, they could make more money selling the foliage in London. Every year they cut all the branches back severely and the trees, undaunted, grow new ones. Such treatment to a young oak in this country would quickly kill it.

The English nurseries are wonderful to visit, but of little practical value to us, as their finest stock is not hardy in this country. To a real lover of trees it is the keenest disappointment that their wonderful cedars and Spanish chestnuts cannot stand our climate.

The Dutch are seriously injuring the English nursery trade in deciduous trees. Labor is cheaper in Holland and there is no duty on trees entering England, consequently the Dutch nurseries are selling their trees in England for less than the English nurseries can afford to grow them. They are trying



NURSERY PACKING SHEDS AT BOSKOOP, HOLLAND

to introduce a tariff on trees in England. In the meanwhile, the word "Dutch" to an English nurseryman is like a red rag to a bull.

All the European nurseries pack the trees they send to this country with scrupulous care. As a general rule they arrive in splendid shape. Those which are packed in wooden boxes, when they are allowed ventilation, arrive in better condition than those wrapped in straw and burlap. The latter are apt to mildew slightly.

When a tree is dormant it will stand a great deal of handling. The trees are dug in the European nurseries early in the winter. They are kept in the packing houses until February, when they are packed and sent to the steamers. Early in March they arrive in New York. A week or two later they are at the nursery. There they are "heeled in" until the ground has thawed so that they can be planted. But with all this handling very few of them die. One spring we received a lot of Norway maples when we were unusually busy. They were "heeled in" when they arrived, that is, laid on the ground and earth thrown over their roots, and it was June before we had time to plant them. Not one of them died.

Every country has some plant pest or disease, which, while not serious in its own

locality, where it is kept in check by its natural enemies, would prove very dangerous if brought to another country. France has the brown-tail moth. England has a disease which affects the beech, and there is a borer in the Austrian pine. Up to the present Holland has had no serious disease or pest, but trees from that country are subject to the same scrutiny as those from the others.

To prevent these foreign pests from getting a foothold in this country, the American inspection regulations are very strict. The importer must notify his State Department of Agriculture upon the arrival of every shipment. The department then sends an inspector, in whose presence the boxes are opened. If anything wrong is found the trees are burned. Sometimes entire consignments have been destroyed. Formerly the trees were unpacked when they arrived, and were merely kept apart until they had been inspected. But it was discovered that sometimes caterpillar eggs were in the straw and leaves used for packing, so that now the trees cannot be unpacked until the inspector arrives.

The duty on trees into this country is 25 per cent. Packing charges, ocean freight, and duty about double the original cost of the trees.



A BLOCK OF KOSTER BLUE SPRUCE EFFECTIVELY PLANTED

EFFICIENCY, FREIGHT RATES, AND TARIFF REVISION

BY BENJAMIN BAKER

IT may seem a far cry from a hearing on freight rates before the Interstate Commerce Commission to the revision of the protective tariff; yet nothing less than the latter affair is ultimately involved in the "efficiency" testimony presented at Washington during the three days preceding Thanksgiving. Then for the first time the public mind of the United States was focused upon some details of the new science best called "scientific management." What was then said by the witnesses for the shippers has been the subject of much comment in the press, pro and con. The railroad presidents have delivered their expected broadsides at meddlers in general, and that Don Quixote of a counsel for the seaboard shippers, Louis D. Brandeis, in particular. The public is in part skeptical, in part disposed to believe "there is a good deal in it."

CONSERVATION OF LABOR

In fact, the hearings at Washington made the opening of a great campaign, the first campaign of real "conservation" ever launched in this country. We have cried aloud at the waste of our natural resources, failing to see that of time and labor effort, the most strictly limited of our treasures, we have learned to conserve but little. We have rebelled at the high cost of living, but have had no sounder resource than to blame therefor everything in sight and out of sight. We have raged at monopoly, but have neither penetrated the secret of the efficiency of monopoly, nor the means of controlling it. Faith has been likened to a mustard-seed; and the cynic, especially of the railroad sort, if he even thinks the matter worth a moment's passing attention, may jeer at these expressions. But there is a saying about the proper time to laugh and the long-headed man can bide his time.

TRAFFIC EFFICIENCY NOT ATTACKED

So much has been ill said about the meaning of the shippers' case that one of the first

tasks of the accurate chronicler of events is to declare what the shippers did not try to do.

They did not try to "teach railroading to the railroad experts." Railroading is not one thing, but many things. In only one department, the traffic department,—that concerned with the movement of trains,—is the railroad business essentially different from any private enterprise that runs machine shops, builds roads and bridges and buildings, buys materials, and employs labor. In the traffic department alone are the railroad officials generally entitled to call themselves "experts." And in regard to the traffic department the efficiency engineers do not greatly criticize the railroads. On this point Harrington Emerson, the one of Mr. Brandeis' witnesses who had had the widest experience with railroad work and conditions, said: "The efficiency of the traffic, by my standards, is very high; that is, the efficiency of expense in the traffic department."

THE MECHANICAL ENGINEER'S TASK

In all the parts of the railroad business outside of the traffic department, exceedingly few of the higher railroad officials are entitled to be called experts. Their occasional utter failure as accountants is certified by such things as the coal graft on the Pennsylvania, and the recent car-repair scandals on the Illinois Central; more humorously, by the case of the railroad vice-president named in Mr. Emerson's testimony, who declared at a meeting of the Railroad Club in Pittsburg, that an annual cost of \$37 for freight-car repairs was an absurdly low estimate,—only to find when he overhauled his own figures that his own road was doing it for \$31.01. These higher officials are not prevaillingly mechanical engineers, civil engineers or fuel experts. And, had they the professional training of such men, they have not had the time, and rarely the inclination to master the mass of detail that is necessary to the mechanical engineer who undertakes to make a specialty of scientific management.

Tasks in the engineering and mechanical fields the officials must of necessity hand over to lower officials, who have had little or no more training than their superiors in the possibilities of scientific management in their special provinces. Still lower, foremen and workmen are absolutely untrained in the scientific use of labor and of time.

IMPROVEMENTS IN SHOP MANAGEMENT

The criticism of the shippers was therefore directed at the conduct of the many departments of the railroads outside of the traffic, which are essentially the same as in all private manufacturing and constructing enterprises. They asserted that the railroads, in their capacity of manufacturers and construction engineers showed the same inefficiency that characterizes American industry as a whole,—the same failure to get a reasonably high return from outlay on labor and materials that is the chief cause of the high cost of living, and of the rising cost of transportation. In order to make their criticism complete they called witnesses who told what they had seen accomplished by scientific management in a variety of trades and unskilled occupations which covered every activity of the railroads outside of the traffic. They showed that in machine shops, in textile mills, in printing shops, in bricklaying, and in the handling of unskilled labor the scientific study of what motions were necessary, and what time these motions should consume,—what organization and planning of work beforehand was required to make this detailed study fruitful,—they showed that all these steps, gathered into a scientific system of management adapted to the particular industry, had largely reduced the cost of production, while at the same time increasing the wages of the workers and the profits of the manufacturers. The shippers argued that since these things had been done in private shops they could be done equally well in railroad shops; that they would reduce the necessary outlay of the railroads just as they had done that of private owners. And, finally, that with scientific management of their departments the railroads would not need the added tribute from the public which they now demand.

A CASE OF SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

What scientific management means is admirably illustrated by the story of bricklay-

ing, so well given in Mr. Gilbreth's testimony. Ordinarily a brick-mason makes eighteen different sets of motions in laying a single brick. He bends over, in the first place, to pick up one brick, and in lifting it he lifts ten pounds of brick and about 100 pounds of brick-mason—the upper part of his own body. In laying 1000 bricks, in a day's work, he lifts 100,000 pounds of brick-mason. This was an obvious waste of labor. So a common laborer was hired to put the bricks where the masons would not have to stoop for them. Another thing is that when a mason picks up a hand-made brick, which is always a little thicker at one side than on the other, he tosses the brick up, turning it over until his touch tells him which side is the top, before he puts it in place in the wall. The cure for this was to have all the bricks piled top up before they were brought to the masons. Then, further, everyone has seen the mason tap his brick several times to settle it into the mortar. More waste of time. The cure was to make the mortar thinner, so that the weight of the brick would settle it into the right position. This was scientific management—"motion study." It raised the day's work for the average brick-mason from 1000 up to 2700 bricks a day, and in individual cases to much higher figures. The mason made only six motions where he used to make eighteen.

SOME OF THE MEN WHO GAVE TESTIMONY

So much concerning the details by which efficiency has been increased in various industries has already been printed in the daily press that there is no need to repeat those details further, fascinating and inspiring as they are to the alert mind. But a word is needed in regard to the witnesses who testified, and equally in regard to some men who could have given most important evidence but did not. Those who did testify concerning the effect of scientific management in improving the condition of their own enterprises included James Mapes Dodge, of the Link-Belt Company of Philadelphia, Chicago, and Indianapolis; and Henry R. Towne, president of the famous Yale & Towne works at Stamford, Conn. Both these men are past presidents of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and are of the highest standing, both as professional men and as manufacturers. It was in the Link-Belt shops in Philadelphia that "high-speed steel" for machine tools,—one of the most important of modern advances

in machine work—was first developed into practical usefulness. The other witnesses from the shops themselves included vice-president Hathaway, of the Tabor Company, of Philadelphia, a machine shop operated under the Taylor system; Mr. Scheel, head of the planning department of the Brighton Mills at Passaic, N. J., where Henry L. Gantt has accomplished most remarkable results with foreign operatives of all sources; and Frank B. Gilbreth, the contractor, who has revolutionized the practice of brick-laying. Of the professional efficiency engineers there were two; Henry L. Gantt and Harrington Emerson. Mr. Emerson was the only one who has been long associated with railroad work. He introduced scientific management into the Topeka shops of the Santa Fé, and there his methods effected a saving of five million dollars in three years, besides putting an end to chronic and critical labor troubles which had come to a head in the disastrous strike of 1903-04.

LABOR UNIONS DO NOT OPPOSE

One hasty and misleading attack on scientific management that should be "nailed" is the assertion that organized labor stands in the way. In the actual experience of those who testified at the hearings in Washington this has not been the case. Mr. Gilbreth, who has done construction work under the scientific system in such a labor stronghold as San Francisco, said that he dealt by preference with unions and union men. The unions were at first inclined to be suspicious, but as soon as they understood the plan there was no opposition. The reason is plain. The primary object of the labor union is to get work for all its members, and to secure for them a minimum daily wage. It is the practical essence of scientific management that it offers to every worker, as a minimum, the prevailing day wage of his locality. Then, in addition, scientific management shows him how to earn a bonus in addition to that daily wage by performing his work more efficiently. He does not work more hours, but the effort he makes is all work, is really productive. It is a safe prediction that were scientific management generally introduced into our industries, the efforts of the unions would be restricted to maintaining the minimum wage. In a New York press room, under a strong union, the pressmen get their regular \$24 a week, and some of them earn bonuses amounting to as much as \$7 a week. It

should be remembered that the unions are held together by the interest of the members. No union could long stand the strain of opposing a maximum wage that is within the reach of every member.

WHAT THE SHIPPERS DEMAND

Now, in the words of the catechism, "What should we learn from these things?"

As for the immediate affair of the railroads and their freight rates, that is an issue of government regulation. Most persons agree on the necessity of some regulation. The immediate point is, "How." In private business, when a manufacturer finds his profits disappearing because of the activities of his competitors, he must cut down his costs or go out of business. In the railroad world, when profits grow too small, the roads ask the government for permission to take more money from the public. This is easier than putting into effect the scientific management which is the salvation of the private manufacturer. The roads have only to assert that they have made every possible economy, and thereafter stand pat. What does the interest and welfare of the public require? Plainly the railroads must have an adequate net income; there is not much doubt that on the whole their net income is now rather low. The public interest requires that the railroads should be prosperous, since they cannot otherwise give the service the public demands. It also requires that the rates charged by the railroads should not be increased if better management of the railroads can make the present income serve all necessary purposes. It is on this point that the shippers have presented to the Interstate Commerce Commission the tangible results of scientific management, and have asked the Commission to determine by their own independent inquiry whether the railroads are getting for the money they spend the returns which scientific management secures in private undertakings. If railroad expenditure is inefficient by these practicable standards, the shippers contend that the rate increases should be refused until the efficiency of railroad expenditures has been brought up to par.

THE BEARING ON TARIFF REVISION

Tariff revision is the subject of the next lesson,—a lesson that will be bitterly resisted, but will ultimately be learned. At present the country is awaiting the first

steps in a "scientific" revision of the tariff. The announced plan is that the Tariff Commission shall discover the cost of production of various articles in this country and abroad, and that on this basis of cost figures, import duties shall be so adjusted as to "equalize costs" to the American producer and to assure him in addition to this equalizing of cost a "reasonable profit." Now, in view of the scientific management testimony at Washington, it is interesting to consider what the Tariff Commission ought to accept as the cost, say, of a piece of gray goods. One manufacturer will give a certain figure; then, perchance, another manufacturer who has introduced scientific management into his mill will give a figure 20 to 30 per cent. lower. This percentage of reduction in the cost of product has been obtained in American cotton mills with a mere beginning upon scientific management.

Here we are, then, in regard to the tariff in exactly the same situation in which the shippers find themselves with regard to the increase in freight rates. The cotton manufacturer has said,—and this is history that might be duplicated in hundreds of cases,—“I know that those looms are not efficient, but what's the use of my replacing them with better machines. If I put in new and better looms my competitors will do the same thing, and I shall be no better off with regard to them.” This, it should be repeated, is the statement actually made by a large cotton manufacturer, and it shows pretty accurately where the great purchasing public comes in. If this man and his competitors had put in more efficient looms they could have lowered the cost of their product, and the price of it to the public, though their own profits might have been no larger. The question therefore arises, Will the public continue, in the shape of a tariff on imports, a protection or subsidy which can be shown to serve American manufacturers, whether of cotton goods or any other product, as an excuse for continuing in their factories policies and methods which are inefficient, and which in the end impose upon the public a higher price for articles of daily use than it is really necessary for the public to pay? Essentially, there is no difference in principle between this side of the tariff and the railroad rate proposition. The interests of labor are not at stake, for scientific management invariably means better wages. The issue appears to be simply

whether the cost of waste and inefficiency shall be avoided by the manufacturers and the railroads through scientific management of their undertakings; or whether the cost of this waste and inefficiency shall be loaded upon the public. It is for the public to say whether the basis of tariff revision shall be efficiency costs, or inefficiency costs.

ADVANTAGE OF THE SMALL PLANT

Another matter of consequence upon which the results of scientific management has thrown a welcome light is the future of the small, independent manufacturer; and on this point a few words from Mr. Emerson's testimony are worth quoting. “Presidents of large manufacturing concerns have told me,” he said, “that they have been finding it absolutely impossible in some lines to compete with the small, independent manufacturer.” The reason lies in a little-appreciated fact,—namely the loss of efficiency, and hence the increase in cost of production, that attends complication beyond a certain point. If in the great factory each of ten operations in the production of a certain article is done with 95 per cent. efficiency, the final efficiency of that factory is less than that of the smaller factory where the same article is turned out with fewer separate steps, even through the separate steps in the smaller factory are of slightly lower efficiency. Something less than ideal, 100 per cent. efficiency must be accepted in this world. So long as each dependent operation is 100 per cent. of the preceding operation, all goes well. But when successive operations mean taking 95 per cent. of 95 per cent. and so on, the simplicity of the small plant will always give it certain important advantages over the very large plant. But the small plant must be efficient.

It would be outside the scope of this article to attempt any detailed discussion of the paramount issue of the cost of living, from which freight rates and tariff imposts get their only real importance. But it is worth while to ask the reader's attention to the fact that of all possible causes of high prices *waste* is the most potent; that scientific management has disclosed wastes reaching an enormous aggregate, even now little realized: and, finally, that scientific management has presented the only workable means yet devised for avoiding the greater part of this waste.

THE PLATINUM AND NICKEL INDUSTRIES

BY DAVID T. DAY

(United States Geological Survey)

MARKET reports record regularly the "positions" of various commodities. This word means, to the trade, the change in the amount needed by the world and the ability of the supply to meet it, and the resultant fluctuations in price.

At this moment the positions of two metals, platinum and nickel, are so unsatisfactory that the industries are in a critical condition. The causes of the unsatisfactory positions are so exactly reversed in the case of the two metals as to be of general interest. Both are due to failure of so-called "trust methods" to meet the peculiar conditions.

The supply of nickel is too great, and the price has dropped from the once-upon-a-time rate of \$4 a pound to less than half a dollar. The market for platinum is too great, a famine is threatened, and the price has doubled in a year.

For thirty years one strong personality, Joseph Wharton, a Quaker merchant of Philadelphia, ruled the nickel market in peace and prosperity, in spite of the fact that more nickel ores were known than could possibly be used. In fact, ores containing nickel and cobalt were mined for cobalt in Connecticut before the Revolution—even before nickel had been isolated as a metal.

Wharton ruled partly by being a great metallurgist and improving the smelting art until his nickel was the purest known, but chiefly by his untiring vigilance as a merchant. He ruled until foreign ores of New Caledonia and of Canada pressed their demands. They finally entered by beating down the tariff, against Wharton's vigorous protest. The Canadian nickel was largely owned by citizens of the United States residing in Cleveland, Ohio. Their plea was that the United States needed the nickel for armor plate. The plea succeeded. Wharton closed the only considerable nickel mine in the United States and submissively changed his activity from mining and smelting nickel ores to making government nickel steel at his Bethlehem Iron Works. His reign passed to the International Nickel Company, which controls the

nickel supply of the world, and, lacking Wharton's shrewd knowledge of trade principles has tried to force a great supply upon a market that does not exist. Wharton had already exhausted the expedient of reducing the price, and the trust resolved to expand nickel's usefulness. They pushed nickel steel in every direction, but there has not been war enough for the armor plates. For the arts of peace they reintroduced nickel in the utensils of the kitchen. Unfortunately, the tariff which let in their nickel also let in cheap tin, and kept out tin plates and by the aggressive work of St. Louis tin plate manufacturers tin ware was sold in the five and ten cent stores, which competed with nickel at fifty times the price. Then the Mellons put aluminum into the same field. The nickel trust, though backed with many millions in capital, and vitally interested, has not so cut the price as to lead to a division of the utensil trade in its favor. Neither has it reintroduced nickel-coated wares to compete with tin, though Wharton's assistant, Fleitmann, showed the way many years ago. Wharton died a few years ago and the nickel trade needs not a trust but a merchant.

Platinum, on the contrary, is too useful for the supply. It is still indispensable in incandescent electric bulbs, and a certain quantity is needed for the utensils of chemical industry and for laboratories. As these are increasing very rapidly, the consumption of platinum increases, and the supply grows less, because the deposits are few. Nickel, on the other hand, occurs universally. It has been detected as far out in the universe as the sun and in meteorites. It accompanies iron and is detected in refined copper. Its places of accumulation, as valuable ores, are many. But one can count the platinum deposits on one's hand.

Russia ranks first in platinum production, and benefits by convict labor and the developed skill of many years. Lately, American gold dredges help to eke out a supply from the rapidly decreasing stores there. Colombia, South America, comes next, but

there the adventurous whites who have left the waning gold fevers to risk the swamp fevers have been failures as miners. Third in rank as a producer of platinum is the United States, and here again platinum has taken refuge in an unsettled country. The west coast of northern California, Oregon, and Washington has a fringe of settlements of fisher folk at the water's edge, and behind this the testimony of the elk, panther, and bear shows that the country is still wild and likely to remain so. But here is a heritage, heeded by no one, yet sufficient in all probability to give a good livelihood to a large population; to develop good roads and a demand for vegetables, grain, cattle, and especially fruits, which grow well in one of the best and most agreeable climates in the country. Then why not? Why does not platinum mining develop by the almost automatic processes of industry? The answer is simple. The platinum market is in the hands of three or four concerns who have alternately combined and competed for the already developed supply of Russia. Their overtures to the simple people of the Oregon coast have left the greater profit in the hands of the big concerns—so the Oregonians think—and it costs too much to overcome their suspicions. A trust would have difficulty in monopolizing

the small, scattered deposits, which are large in the aggregate. It is a "poor man's proposition" where the miner must know how to deal with and save by-products. But the Western people deal with the main chance. They are nowhere educated to the doctrine of by-products. The gold miner knows less of platinum than the hog raiser does of pepsin.

Of the two industries, the outlook for platinum is better than for nickel. Never in our history has a mineral want gone begging. The material is always supplied. In this case the easy solution lies in the application of the beneficent paternalism with which the United States Department of Agriculture has helped the farmer, until this feature is a recognized essential part of national economy. The same spirit has made itself evident in the creation of a Bureau of Mines. The opportunities for benefiting the mining fraternity are few compared to those in agriculture, for the private mining engineer serves his client-age well. But the platinum mine is too small for the mining engineer, and one small mining experiment station on the Oregon coast will do for platinum what agricultural experiment stations have done for the culture of alfalfa, dates, tobacco, and hemp; and the result will be more generally appreciated.

TAX REFORM IN CALIFORNIA

BY CARL C. PLEHN

(Professor of Finance, University of California, and Secretary of the State Commission on Revenues and Taxation)

AT the general State election, held on November 8, 1910, the people of California adopted an amendment to the constitution of the State establishing a new system of taxation.

In his work on "The American Commonwealth" James Bryce refers to the constitution of California, adopted in 1879, as "that surprising instrument by which California is now governed." In the later editions Mr. Bryce prints extracts from this instrument with an apology for "being unable to find space for the whole document." That constitution was "surprising" not alone on account of its length, nor the radical principles embodied in it, but also on account of the freedom with which it admitted both the views and the grammar of the people to the "fundamental law" of the land. It is more

a code of law than a constitution, and leaves but little latitude for the legislator. However, despite the gloomy forecasts of the conservatives and of panic-stricken capitalists this folk-made constitution has not worked badly during its thirty years of life. But because of its many prohibitions, rather than its radical grants of power, it has required a steady stream of new folk-made law in the form of "constitutional amendments" to keep the ship of state moving.

The article on "revenue and taxation" in this instrument prescribed rigidly, for all departments of government, the old general property tax. In this tax was embodied a novel device intended to compel the mortgagee to pay taxes on the mortgage,—advice which soon became a dead letter and has just been entirely repealed. The same article

authorized an income tax on "any one or more" . . . "persons or corporations, joint-stock associations, or companies." Yet no railway magnate, no "octopus" corporation, no labor leader, nor any one else has ever been taxed under this provision by name or by class or otherwise.

The State outgrew the old general property tax twenty years ago. For ten years "the people" suffered in silence. Sometimes the suffering farmers growled, but then—they also growled about the weather, with just as must effect. Slowly the dissatisfaction spread. For the past ten years the farmers in their "Grange" meetings, the county assessors in their annual conventions, and other bodies have been "whereasing" and "resolving" on tax reform with somewhat more concrete purposes in mind. In 1899 a special committee of the Senate reported that: "From Maine to Texas and from Florida to California there is but one opinion as to the workings of the present system of taxation. That is, that it is inequitable, unfair, and positively unjust."

Six years ago a definite campaign for tax reform began, which has just been crowned with success. This campaign had none of the picturesque, riotous features of the movement which gave birth to the constitution. It was a sober, serious upheaval, an orderly, legal revolution. The army of tax reform was manned by the over-taxed farmers and real estate owners, led and officered by two successive Governors—George C. Pardee and James N. Gillett—and by the most experienced tax officials of the State. The measure eventually adopted was carefully prepared by a commission composed of the Governor, members of the legislature, and the Professor of Finance in the State University, which had been created by one legislature; it was debated and unanimously proposed to the people by a second legislature; it was freely discussed and voted down by the people; then it was revised again to meet the specific objections raised, and again formally proposed by a third legislature, and eventually approved by the people by a majority of 40,000 out of a total of 160,000 votes cast. At the very eve of the last election a special session of the legislature was called to make certain minor corrections, and at that same special session certain features, to which popular objection had been made, were amended. It was discussed at length and in detail by all the leading papers of the State, and every voter received by mail lengthy printed arguments pro and con. Large display advertisements, mostly in opposition,

were run in all the papers of the State, and innumerable posters, "stickers," and handbills called attention to its merits and demerits.

The farmers and real estate men used for the most part the direct and simple appeal:



The forces against the amendment were, naturally, those corporations whose taxes will be raised. For the most part they worked in the dark, because it is generally believed that the voters of California have "corporation-phobia" and will vote against anything the "interests" are known to favor. But some of the national bankers came more or less into the open and through the large display advertisements above mentioned advanced certain "reasons" against the amendment and certain alleged statistics, both without strict regard to the truth. Their main endeavor was to "throw a scare" into the mercantile and financial interests by claiming that such "excessive" taxation would drive away capital, and they even went so far as to claim that the new system of taxation would jeopardize the school system and the State University. The special cause of the opposition of these bankers appears to have been the action of the legislature, at the last moment, in restoring the tax on bank capital to one per cent as recommended by the commission, although it had been at one time fixed at six-tenths of one per cent. But they had stultified themselves by favoring the amendment when the rate was low.

The evils that were complained of were much the same as those that are felt in all other States which continue the general property tax as a means for raising revenue for the support of all the different divisions of government, central and local. They are: (1) the over-taxation of real estate and especially of agricultural real estate; (2) grave in-

equalities between localities due largely to the effort of each county (in California the county is the local assessment district) to evade the State tax by under valuation of its taxable property; (3) inequalities and unfairness in the apportionment, under the "where located" rule, of the revenues derived from enterprises of a general character, like the railroads; and (4) the evasion of taxation by the banks and public service corporations.

The remedies provided in the amendment are: (1) the abolition of the State tax on property in general, which was held to be the main cause of the inequalities between localities; (2) the taxation of public service corporations, whose property is of a general character by, and for the support of, the State alone, and that on the basis of gross receipts; also (3) the taxation of the banks by and for the State but on the basis of the book value of the stock. In short, it is the plan of "separation" that has been so largely agitated as the first necessary step in tax reform.

The problem of "separation" is more difficult in California than in many other States because of the larger relative amount of the State's expenditures. The State spends liberally for the support of the school system, endeavoring to equalize the school facilities throughout the commonwealth, and it relieves the localities of many other expenses which in other States are left for the towns and cities to bear. The State has heretofore gone but a little way in the direction of separation, having out of some \$12,000,000 of net income only about \$4,000,000 from sources other than the property tax. Hence, it was necessary to take over for State taxation all the railroads, steam and electric, all light, heat, and power companies, all telegraph and telephone companies, all car companies, and express companies, and the banks. Incidentally, the taxation of insurance companies is equalized under the new system and the vexed question of the taxation of franchises has been settled by passing that into the hands of the State. Under the old system each franchise, or "the corporate excess," was taxable where the "head office" of the company was located. But the location of the "head office" was merely technical and by shifting it to some out-of-the-way place where the assessor could be counted on to be complaisant, the tax could be evaded entirely.

Much interest attaches to the method of determining the rates of taxation on the basis of the gross receipts. In the first place it was established that the average rate of taxation on real estate and on the other property that

is left for local taxation would be on the average about one per cent. of the full cash value, if the State tax could be removed. It was, therefore, sought to establish such rates on the gross receipts of the different classes of corporations as would equal, as nearly as might be, one per cent. of the true value of the property used by the different classes of corporations. The rates finally decided upon were: 4 per cent. for railroads of all classes, and for the light, heat, and power companies; 3½ per cent. for telephone and telegraph companies; 3 per cent. for car companies; and 2 per cent. for express companies.

Banks have been very inadequately taxed in the past. National banks especially have almost entirely escaped taxation, because the State attempted to tax them by one method and other banks by another, and the federal courts were afraid that the difference in method might involve discrimination against the national banks. The solution offered is to tax all banks alike on the basis of the book value of the stock. In connection with the banks one of the controversies arose. The commission, logically, recommended that the banks should pay one per cent., the same rate as other taxpayers are required to pay; but the bankers made a plea to the legislature that one per cent. was an "excessive" tax and persuaded that body at its regular session to reduce the rate to six-tenths of one per cent. This aroused such popular outcry that on the very eve of the election, the legislature, in special session, restored the rate to one per cent., the same as on all other property.

All of the rates may be changed by the legislature at any time by a two-thirds vote. It is estimated that the new system will increase the taxes of the corporations to be taxed for State purposes by some \$3,500,000 annually. It would have been more, had it not been that the six years of agitation led to the partial correction of some of the under-assessments. Correspondingly, the burden on real estate can be reduced by so much.

It is estimated that the taxes reserved for the State will be sufficient to meet all its requirements. If that proves to be the case, no equalization between counties will be necessary. The counties will enjoy a considerable degree of "home rule" in matters of taxation. Furthermore, the corrupting influence of politics in relation to taxation will be removed, at least so far as the great "interests" are concerned, for their taxes will be determined by a mathematical rule that obviates the necessity for any discretionary judgments by assessors or other officials.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

A GLANCE AT THE WORLD'S PERIODICALS

A BROAD, general, rapid survey of the periodical literature published in the various languages of the civilized world during the present season indicates that, while national and local topics of interest come in for the largest share of attention, certain subjects of world concern are presented and discussed in the reviews and magazines brought out in many different languages and at widely separated points of the globe. Such topics of general human concern as the constantly increasing cost of living, the relations of labor and capital, the adjustment and readjustment of tariffs, the ever-mounting budgets of the nations, relief of the unemployed, international peace and the reduction of armament, various aspects of the woman suffrage question, socialism, general party politics and aerial navigation—these occupy a good deal of space in the current periodicals of Europe, of the United States and Canada and of the Latin-American countries.

In addition to thoroughly presenting all phases of these general subjects, the reviews of continental Europe are largely concerned with the questions of emigration, of the relations between Church and State, and of the extension of the franchise. British periodicals continue to debate with more or less acerbity international and imperial relations, Home Rule for Ireland and the seemingly endless struggle between the two houses of Parliament.

THE BRITISH REVIEWS AND THE GENERAL ELECTIONS

The more serious quarterlies and monthlies all have "leaders" on the general political situation in Great Britain. In the *Contemporary Review* (December) Mr. Harold Spender very lucidly states the issue of the general election campaign just closed. Will Britons consent much longer to the powers and privileges of the few over the life and labor of the many? This, says Mr. Spender, is the question Englishmen are asked to decide. The *Fortnightly* (December) prints four articles on the political situation. Mr. Sydney Brooks characterizes the breakdown of the recent conference between the two houses of Parliament as registering "the lowest point

to which our political capacity has sunk within the memory of living man." He is persuaded that the country recognizes the justice of the Liberal point of view, but he deprecates the methods employed by the present government. Mr. J. L. Garvin, editor of the *London Observer*, whose trenchant editorials have figured as one of the most important influences in the last two general elections in Great Britain, announces his defection from the government. The supreme duty of the hour, says Mr. Garvin, is to "break both the Liberal party and Mr. Redmond in order to save the crown from humiliation and the realm from ruin."

Mr. L. J. Maxse, editor of the *National Review* (London), has, in his issue for December, his usual quota of vigorously worded paragraphs on the situation from the anti-Liberal, anti-German, anti-Home Rule standpoint. *Blackwood's* (December) editorially rejoices at what it calls the progress made by Unionist sentiment. Two articles in the *Nineteenth Century* present opposing views. Mr. J. A. R. Marriott berates the Unionists in view of the Osborne judgment. Where, he asks, has British conservatism gone? Sir Henry Seton-Karr unsparingly criticises Chancellor Lloyd-George, and Mr. W. S. Lilly purports to find, in the philosophy of Aristotle and John Stuart Mill, a real reason for the existence of a conservative Upper Chamber. Home Rule for Ireland, in the opinion of a writer in the *Fortnightly* who signs himself "Outsider," is the liveliest issue before the British people to-day. Canon Sheehan, writing on William O'Brien and the Irish Center party (in the same number of the *Fortnightly*), maintains that the Irish are beginning to discover that they must unite, because "the best way to turn an enemy into a friend is to trust him."

WHAT ENGLISHMEN ARE READING ABOUT

A noteworthy article on social conditions in England appears in *Blackwood's* under the title "The Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Idle Rich, by One of Them"—referring to a recent speech of Mr. Lloyd-George. The writer describes the work he does as a landowner and apparently makes good his claim

that a country gentleman is not necessarily an idler.

There are the usual number of articles on topics concerned with the emancipation of woman. Particularly noteworthy is Mr. Joseph Strauss' study of "Woman's Position in Jewry." "In ancient and modern Jewry the position of woman is such as to command the approval and admiration even of our modern suffragettes." Good supplementary reading to this article is the suggestion, interestingly set forth in a paper by R. F. Cholmeley, on "A School for Fathers," in *The Englishwoman*, that ably edited review of the progress of feminine emancipation published in London, which has, during the past year, printed a good deal of scholarly, well-thought out material on the position of woman in modern society.

INTERNATIONAL TOPICS

The English reviews are, of course, greatly concerned with international politics. Dr. E. J. Dillon, in his stimulating and comprehensive review of foreign affairs which appears each month in the *Contemporary*, considers, in that periodical for December, "The Chief Hindrance to a European War"—the check being, in his opinion, a preponderating British navy. In the *Westminster*, Mr. H. J. Darnton-Fraser, in his article "The Danger Point in the Near East," joins Mr. Maxse, editor of the *National Review*, in his anti-German preachments. "Tay Pay" O'Connor, in his own *Magazine*, pleads with the civilized world to arouse itself on the question of "Finland's Struggle for Freedom." A strong article on "German Views of an Anglo-German Understanding," by Sir H. H. Johnston, in the *Nineteenth Century*, is noticed more extensively on another page. Mr. Lovat Fraser, in the *National Review*, attempts to justify the sharp tone of the British note to Persia, made public in October, on the subject of anarchy in the southern provinces of that country. The whole question of the Near East, as summed up in the career and personality of the ex-Turkish Sultan, Abdul Hamid, is graphically and shudderingly set forth in the *Fortnightly*, by two Greek writers, C. Chrysaphides and R. Lara

ESSAYS IN THE FRENCH REVIEWS

The French reviews always pay a good deal of attention to literary and historical topics. The staid and solid old *Revue des Deux*

Mondes continues to give us elaborate, excellently written historical and reminiscent articles. Recent numbers have been made particularly interesting by a series of articles from the pen of the well-known French writer on political economy, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu. He discusses French labor problems with particular reference to what he calls the syndicalist revolution, which he believes is imminent in France. That staid French periodical, *Documents du Progrès*, semi-official organ of the Foreign Office, contains an elaborate analysis (by R. Broda) on the idea of "insurance against unemployment." In the same magazine R. Simon describes the results of "collective bargaining and the conditions of labor in continental Europe." The *Grande Revue* thinks that "the legal minimum wage in France is too low."

Army and navy matters are discussed at length in the French reviews. General Francfort, writing in the *Correspondant*, maintains that the Republic needs more army officers; L. Marin (in the *Nouvelle Revue*) severely criticises the executive management of the French navy, and Commander Davin (in *Questions Diplomatiques*) gives an admirable history of the Russian navy. Colonel Marchand pays his respects to British administration in Egypt in an article in the *Nouvelle Revue*, and, in *Questions Diplomatiques*, scores "Turkish Pretensions in Africa," while in the last-named review M. Sovue congratulates England on the consummation of the South African union. An anonymous article in the *Revue de Paris* "booms" Brest as a transatlantic port. *La Revue*, in many respects the most ably and vigorously edited of the French reviews, has an appreciation of Tolstoy, and a long, eloquent description of Latin civilization by Señor Manuel Ugarte, the well-known Argentine political writer. The editor of *La Revue* also, M. Jean Finot, has, in two recent numbers, an article on the emancipation of woman (he entitles it "The Death of the Eternal Feminine") in which he speaks hopefully of the woman of to-morrow, who "will have acquired virtues unknown to us to-day, and who will show us a new femininity which will not be a new masculinity."

STUDIES BY GERMANY'S WISE MEN

The German reviews are even more scholarly and detached from the pressing problems of the day than are the French. The heavier reviews, like the *Deutsche* and the *Rundschau*, present philosophical studies, opinions of

learned Germans on the functions of education, and the army and navy, and two or three studies of foreign politics that are worthy of note. On another page we quote an interesting German opinion of the "Roosevelt Destiny." In connection with our article on the London town-planning conference on page 46 some interesting information can be obtained from Dr. Bruno Schmitz' scholarly paper (in the *Nord und Süd*) on "The Berlin Housing Problem." A long discussion of the recent Parliamentary developments in Germany is contributed to the *Deutsche Revue* by T. Boisly. Of course the German reviews all have something to say on conditions in the Balkans and Turkish finances. Frieherr von Machy, writing in the *Konservative Monatsschrift*, thinks that the young Turks in their financial extremity must now turn to Germany.

OTHER EUROPEAN COMMENT AND DISCUSSION

In Italy, the reform of the Upper House and questions of the regulation of art exportations and the lessening of emigration occupy the attention of the magazines. We give elsewhere a statement of the reforming of the Italian senate. *Nuova Antologia* has a symposium on Tolstoy made up of articles by seven eminent Italians. The celebrated Professor Ferrero contributes some appreciative comments on the literary style of the great Russian.

It is not very often that the Spanish reviews publish articles that are of such a nature that they can be condensed and used in these pages. Recent numbers of *Espana Moderna*, however, have contained several noteworthy articles of interest to Americans. One on "Greater Spain" in a current number deals with variations of the Spanish language found in America, pointing out the difference between Cubanisms, Peruvianisms, etc. We quote on another page from an article in *Cultura Filipina* on the status of the English and Spanish languages in the Philippines.

The Dutch reviews limit their articles largely to topics of national interest. A writer in *De Gids*, however, discusses international arbitration and disarmament, declaring it his belief that it will be the duty of Holland to bring about some scheme of universal peace.

The readers of Swedish, Norwegian and Danish reviews are evidently much more interested in topics of artistic and economic concern in their own countries than they are in

international affairs. All the Scandinavian countries, however, are interested in Georg Brandes, the famous Danish critic, who has come to be recognized as the most eminent personality of his country. A little about Brandes' eminence is given in a recent number of *Samtiden*, the Norwegian review, from which we quote on another page.

THE AMERICAN POPULAR MAGAZINES

Reverting now to the form of periodical publication with which our readers are more familiar, the American illustrated magazine, we find that the annual custom of adapting the December and January numbers to the supposed requirements of the Christmas season still persists, although the preparation of special holiday features, both in text and illustration, is growing less elaborate from year to year. Notwithstanding the large number of Christmas stories that still make their appearance in the magazines, a very large proportion of space in the December numbers is left for the so-called "serious" features,—political, social and economic discussions, a few essays and bits of literary criticism, and now and then a descriptive article of the old type, with an occasional chapter of biography, reminiscence, or history.

POLITICAL DISCUSSIONS

If any Rip Van Winkle among the magazines of half a century ago should come back to earth in this year of grace of 1911, one of the first characteristics that he would be likely to note in the contents of the up-to-date American magazine would be the increased attention to current topics in the political and economic fields. By way of illustration, we have only to look over the tables of contents presented by the leading popular magazines of last month. These are some of the subjects which are journalistically treated in those periodicals: "Insurgence of Insurgency," by William Allen White, a journalist who knows what insurgency means, if anybody does, in the *American Magazine*; "It: the Politics of Business," by Lincoln Steffens in *Everybody's*; "What Are You Going To Do About It?" (dealing with political conditions in Colorado), by Charles E. Russell in the *Cosmopolitan*; "The New Apportionment of the House," by G. G. Lincoln in *Munsey's*; "Is Congressional Oratory a Lost Art?" by Speaker-to-Be Champ Clark, in the *Century*, and in the same magazine "The House of Governors," by W. G. Jordan, who

is, and has been chief promoter of that promising institution. In the *North American Review* there are two articles bearing directly on the present political situation: "Lessons of the Election," by Edward G. Lowry, and "Popular Election of United States Senators," by J. W. Perrin.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC ARTICLES

Among the economic topics treated in December magazines are "Working Girls' Budgets" and "Masters of Capital in America" in *McClure's*; "The Honest Farmer" in *Hampton's*; and "Woman, the Lion of Progress" in the *Forum*. Mr. William S. Rosser writes with perception and knowledge in the *Atlantic Monthly* concerning the dwindling of that part of our population which concerns itself with agriculture. In the *American Magazine*, Mr. A. J. Nock exposes some of the absurdities in our present taxation system under the title "The Things That Are Caesar's." Dr. Booker T. Washington tells in the *World's Work* "How Education Solves the Race Problem" and in the same magazine Mr. Frederic C. Howe defines "A Way Toward Modern Civics." Mr. C. M. Harger contributes to the *North American Review* a well-informed statement of the relation of finance to the land movement in the middle West. In *Hampton's*, Rheta C. Dorr writes on "Another Chance for the Bad Boy" and in the *North American Review* Dr. P. S. Moxom shows the relation of the modern child to movements for social reform.

Several important articles of the month are devoted to commerce and its regulation. In the *American Magazine*, Miss Ida M. Tarbell makes pointed reference to the public record of Senator Aldrich on the tariff, while in the *Atlantic* Prof. F. W. Taussig, in an article which we summarize on another page of this REVIEW, attacks the much lauded basic principle of difference in the cost of production as applied to the tariff. The timely subject of reciprocity with Canada is discussed in the *Forum* by Peter McArthur. (In this connection our readers will note Mr. McGrath's resumé of the American and Canadian arguments in this number of the REVIEW.)

Quite apart from questions of tariff and reciprocity, the actual trade conditions of the world are being presented in a series of articles in the *Century Magazine*. The commerce of Spain is described in the December number by A. S. Riggs, and those Americans who have thought of Spain as a decadent nation will be surprised at the showing that is made

for her in trade relations. The old problem of building up an American merchant marine is attacked in the *Atlantic* by Mr. W. S. Bowles.

INTERESTING BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES

It is a relief to turn from these rather matter-of-fact articles to the biographical studies that have a place in the December and January numbers. Prof. A. C. McGiffert has begun in the *Century* a really new and inspiring account of "Martin Luther and His Work." The *Century* has been famous in years past for its biographies of distinguished men. There seems to be a peculiar need of a modern life of Luther which will answer the questions sure to be asked by the present generation. Professor McGiffert is an enthusiast on this subject and the introductory chapters of his work give every promise of a most successful and profitable biography.

Mr. Gamaliel Bradford's study of Robert E. Lee in the *Atlantic* is noteworthy as a discriminating and appreciative contribution of a Northern writer to a rapidly growing Lee literature. Prof. Brander Matthews writes in the *Century* of "Poe's Cosmopolitan Fame," while in the *North American Review* Mr. Archibald Henderson contributes an entertaining analysis of "The International Fame of Mark Twain." These two American writers, it is safe to say, will not soon be forgotten, even in lands where literary reputation has been won by comparatively few Americans. We quote elsewhere (page 97) from Mr. Howells' appreciation of Tolstoy in the *North American*.

TRAVEL, DESCRIPTION, AND ADVENTURE

A few years ago every well-regulated American magazine was supposed to publish in each issue at least two or three "travel articles." This excellent custom is now, we regret to say, more honored in the breach than in the observance. In the whole range of contents presented by the December numbers, only three or four travel sketches have a place. These, however, happen to be exceedingly well done. One of them is Mr. Walter Pritchard Eaton's "The Real Dismal Swamp," in *Harper's*; another is Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton's "Arctic Travels," in *Scribner's*, while Mr. Paul J. Rainey's unusual experiences in securing Arctic animals, as related in the *Cosmopolitan* for December, were summarized in our own December number. In the way of description, also, we

should not omit mention of Mr. G. W. Ogden's account in *Everybody's* of the recent forest fires of the northwest. In the *North American Review*, Mr. W. R. Thayer writes an appreciative article on "The Clue to Modern Italy." In *Hampton's*, Mr. Frederic C. Howe gives an excellent description of the city of Düsseldorf, and in the same magazine Mr. Walter Wellman relates his adventures in his recent attempt to cross the Atlantic in an airship.

As a graphic account of personal experience such as does not often find its way into literature, we commend to the notice of our readers

Mr. Joseph Husband's articles in the *Atlantic* on mining conditions. The December installment is a thrilling story of "Fire in a Mine."

We have mentioned only a few of the more prominent topics in the December numbers of the popular magazines, disregarding for the moment a great number of special and semi-technical articles which constantly appear in journals of a limited or class circulation. These, however, are not altogether ignored in this department of "Leading Articles of the Month," in which are noted several scientific topics that are of interest to the general reader as well as to the specialist.

THE TARIFF AND COST OF PRODUCTION

THE doctrine of a tariff based on differences in cost of production has recently received much attention in this country. It was incorporated in the national Republican platform of 1908, and in the debates on the new Tariff Act, in the following year, it was repeatedly spoken of by the "insurgent" Republicans as the true and accepted Republican principle of protection by which every specific duty on manufactured products was to be tested. And after the Payne-Aldrich bill had been passed and became a law President Taft was repeatedly assailed because of his alleged departure from this principle in signing the bill.

A fresh discussion of this tariff plan is embodied in an article contributed by Prof. F. W. Taussig, of Harvard, to the *Atlantic Monthly* for December. Contrary to a very generally accepted opinion, Professor Taussig regards the scheme as a novel one. At the outset he shows that in order to apply the principle it will be necessary for the new Tariff Board to spend hundreds of thousands of dollars in ascertaining the cost of production of protected articles at home and abroad. He warns us that "cost of production" is a slippery phrase, that costs differ in different establishments and cannot be figured out with accuracy in any one establishment without an elaborate system of special accounts such as are rarely kept; but he admits that approximate figures may be secured and that if the principle is sound it will be of great service to have careful preparation for its application and to reach the nearest approach to accuracy that the complexities of industry permit. But the question remains, How far is it all worth while? To this question Professor Taussig's brutally frank answer is that as a

"solution" of the tariff question this much-paraded "true principle" is worthless. Applied with consistency, he says, it would lead to the complete annihilation of foreign trade.

As he interprets the phrase "equalization of cost of production," it has only this meaning: The higher the expenses of an American producer, and the greater the excess of the expenses incurred by him over those incurred by a foreign competitor, the higher the duty. This means, then, that the production of any and every thing is to be encouraged — not only encouraged but enabled to hold its own. Automatically the duty goes up in proportion as the American cost is large. As an illustration, Professor Taussig refers to the production of tea in South Carolina. Ascertain how much more expensive it is to grow the trees and prepare the leaves there than it is in Ceylon, and put on a duty high enough to offset. Similarly in the case of Kentucky hemp, ascertain how much more expensive it is to grow hemp in Kentucky than in Russia or Yucatan, and equalize conditions with a high duty.

It was on this principle that the duties on lemons and prunes were raised in the Payne-Aldrich tariff for the benefit of the California growers. But, says Professor Taussig, if lemons are to be protected under this principle in California, why not grapes in Maine? "They can be grown if only the duties be made high enough. Of course, the more unfavorable the conditions the higher the duties must be. The climate of Maine is not favorable for grapes; they would have to be grown in hot-houses. But make the duty high enough, handicap the foreign producer to the point of equalization, and the crops can be grown." But the obvious consequence of all

this is that the more unsuited the conditions are for efficient and economical production, the greater will be the effort to bring about protection. This equalizing principle, then, will work in this way,—the worse the natural conditions, the more extreme will be the height of protection.

If it is maintained that the principle is not to be pushed to such absurd lengths the question remains, Where shall the line be drawn? Professor Taussig refers to the advance of duties in our present tariff of 50, 70, and 100 per cent., and to Senator Aldrich's remark in the course of the tariff debates that he would cheerfully vote for a duty of 300 per cent. if it were necessary to equalize conditions for an American producer. If 300 per cent., asks Professor Taussig, why not 500 or 1000 per cent.?

As a proposition for settling the tariff problem, therefore, Professor Taussig dismisses

this much-lauded principle as worthless. In fact, it begs the whole question at issue, which is: How far shall domestic producers be encouraged to enter on industries in which they are unable to meet foreign competition?

Professor Taussig would not, however, leave it to be inferred that inquiries about relative cost of production, money rates of wages, and equalization of conditions, are not worth while. On the contrary, he believes that they will conduce to a better understanding of the tariff situation and are likely to lead to improvement in legislation. In two directions, he believes, the investigation of relative costs of production would be of advantage: as to undue gains in monopolistic or quasi-monopolistic industries, and as to the extent to which there are vested interests which must be respected in a future settlement of the tariff.

A GERMAN VIEW OF THE "ROOSEVELT DESTINY"

A REVIEW of present-day political and economic conditions in the United States—written with remarkable comprehensiveness and penetration for a foreigner—is contributed to the *Deutsche Rundschau* by Emil Fitger, editor of the Bremen *Weserzeitung*. His concluding remarks, which are devoted to the "question of the giant trusts and Roosevelt's relation to them," are worth quoting, and we give them here only slightly condensed:

Whether some great genius will lead his people into new paths is the most difficult thing in the world to predict. Great geniuses are rare phenomena; they appear suddenly like Pallas Athene springing from the head of Zeus. Such were Pericles, Cæsar, Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Bismarck. Is Roosevelt, perchance, made of the stuff of a regenerator? Who knows? He must not be measured by the scale of the men just mentioned; all the world indeed, is agreed upon that. But he has exerted a great influence upon his nation and may possibly still greatly increase it.

In order to be a regenerator of the politics of his country—assuming that Roosevelt wants to venture the great throw—he must, continues the German writer, have a clear realization of his aims and of the means at his disposal.

The power that is ultimately to extend over everything must proceed from internal politics.

The path of the victorious general is not open, unless, it may be, in the event of a war with Japan. It might then well be that, with the lack of trained generals, the "rough rider" of the Far West, the daring volunteer of the Cuban campaign would be placed at the head of all the forces of his country.

If the "waves of war do not raise him to such a rôle, there remains only that of a civil dictator, such as Pericles was under democratic forms."

Roosevelt's task would be the annihilation of the inordinate power of the associated gigantic capital of New York. . . . The combat with such gigantic powers, carried on not from the standpoint of the foreigner but of the North American patriot, would be an enterprise worthy of a political Hercules. There is many an unfavorable element in the arena—the rigidity of party formations, the diverse platforms, the influence of the trusts and their contributions to party funds. But also many favorable factors—the growing resentment of the masses against the trusts, the existence of a party, the Democratic, already trained to fight these capitalistic powers. Roosevelt, however, does not belong to it. Going over from one party to another in a man of such high position is almost unprecedented. Our former compatriot, Carl Schurz, had the courage to do it. . . . But Schurz did not occupy the highest place. And he was confronted by many difficulties owing to his change of allegiance.

Is Roosevelt willing to undertake the giant war with those powers? People do not know. That he will fight against them is certain; but

whether he will do it as a thing of life and death, whether he credits himself with the strength to shift the battle array of the two opponents and throw it into disorder, whether he may even venture to take the unprecedented step of placing himself at the head of his former opponents (from whom so many questions divide him), he alone knows. The accusation, so portentous in a democratic republic, of striving for a dictatorship, to which Gambetta succumbed, Roosevelt has not escaped. His seemingly renewed aspiration for the presidency was interpreted in that light. He was reproached with being the first to break with

the tradition, held sacred since the time of Washington, that no one shall be elected President more than twice. The arraignment is not at all pertinent. Roosevelt has thus far been elected only once, in 1904. Before that he had to step in because of McKinley's assassination. Roosevelt's popularity suffered in the last years of his incumbency; not among the people but in congressional circles did opposition to him manifest itself, after he had repeatedly sharply rebuked them; they, among other ways, answered him by granting him only two battleships of the four he had demanded.

HAS GERMANY DESIGNS ON HOLLAND AND TURKEY?

THE price to England of an understanding with Germany is British acquiescence in the Kaiser's ambition to absorb Holland and dominate in the Balkans. At least, such is the opinion of Sir Harry Johnston, the eminent English traveler and authority on Oriental and African peoples. This opinion is vigorously set forth in an article in the *Nineteenth Century and After*.

Sir Harry Johnston is a friend of peace and a friend of Germany. As an ex-British pro-consul he has a wide experience of the world and its ways. He traveled through the principal towns of Germany last autumn, and during his visit he made it his special business to ask German officials, German politicians, heads of industries and of great commercial firms why Germany is forcing the pace in the matter of naval construction. He took no notice of the "unreasonable aspirations" of the German jingoes. He embodies in his article what he tells us may be considered the average views of enlightened and intelligent Germans. He has come to the conclusion that no understanding is possible with Germany, and that there can be no abatement in the race of naval armaments

unless Great Britain enters into a compact with Germany, written or unwritten, which will make over to the German Empire, as part of the domain in which she exercises dominating influence, the kingdom of the Netherlands and all the appurtenances thereto, the Balkan peninsula, and all that remains of the Turkish Empire.

These are the terms of settlement with Germany.

GERMAN AMBITIONS IN THE NEAR EAST

Here is his summary of what the Germans say regarding their modest ambitions in the Near East:

They propose as their theatre of political influence, commercial expansion, and agricultural experiments the undeveloped lands of the Balkan peninsula, of Asia Minor, and of Mesopotamia, down even to the mouth of the Euphrates. They might be willing, in agreement with the rest of the world, to create an Eastern Belgium in Syria-Palestine—perhaps a Jewish state—which, merely by the fact of its being charged with the safe-keeping of the holy places of Christianity, would quite possibly become undenominational Christian. A Turkish sultanate might continue to exist in Asia Minor, just as there will probably be for centuries a King or Queen of the Netherlands, of Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Bulgaria, and Rumania; but German influence at Constantinople would become supreme, whether or not it was under the black-white-and-red flag of the Fatherland itself, or under the Crescent and Star ensign of Byzantium.

"Why should this worry you?" asked the Germans.

It might inconvenience Russia, but we could square Russia, and in return for the acceptance of our treatment of Constantinople we would give her the fullest guaranties regarding the independence of Denmark, and possibly even we might admit the right of Russia to an *enclave* on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, and to a sphere of influence over Trebizond and Northern Armenia, besides recognizing the special need of Russia to obtain access to the Persian Gulf through Northern and Western Persia.

BERLIN'S APPETITE FOR HOLLAND

The other indispensable condition of a real Anglo-German peace is, according to this English writer, the acceptance by Great Britain of "the virtual incorporation of Holland in the German Empire." "More than one enlightened and intelligent German" told Sir Harry Johnston, that

of course, this Anglo-German understanding would include (whether it were publicly expressed or not) a recognition on the part of Britain that

henceforth the kingdom of the Netherlands must, by means of a very strict alliance, come within the German sphere. We have already brought pressure to bear on the Dutch Government to insure this. We intend to stand no nonsense or to admit no tergiversation in this respect. So long as Holland consents to be more nearly allied with the German Empire than with any other Power, so long its dynasty, its internal independence, and the governance of its oversea possessions (in the which more and more German capital is being sunk annually) will remain completely undisturbed. But you may take it from us that an alliance for offensive and defensive purposes now exists between Holland and Germany, and that the foreign policy of the two nations will henceforth be as closely allied as is that of Germany and Austria.

If Britain refuses this offer from Berlin, then, in the words of the "enlightened and

intelligent Germans" who have given Sir Harry Johnston their opinion:

Of course if you drive us to extremes and block us in all other directions by refusing to coöperate with us in the removal of our neighbors' landmarks and enclosing territories in Europe and Asia we may put the whole question to the test when the right opportunity comes by occupying Belgium (and Holland), by throwing down the gage of battle to France; and, as the outcome of victory, incorporate within the German sphere not only Holland and Belgium but also Picardy. That would be our way of commencing the duel with Great Britain. But we should make use of our navy to defend the approaches to Holland, Belgium, and Denmark, and we ask you what sort of efforts you would have to make in the way of army organization to be able, even in alliance with France and Russia, to turn us out of the Low Countries if you compelled us to occupy them.

UPPER-HOUSE REFORM IN ITALY

AT present when there is such a momentous agitation in England regarding the future of the House of Lords, it is interesting to note the rational steps that are being taken by the Italians in the way of modernizing their Senate. The scheme of reform of the upper house drawn up by a commission appointed for the purpose, is to be submitted to the national parliament. The expectation is that it will meet with no opposition of any moment. The plan as devised will make the Senate far more representative of the people's varied interests than it has hitherto been. The *Paris Temps*, in detailing and commending the proposed measure, gives also the present structure of that body. The article, which is brief and to the point, reads as follows:

The Italian senatorial commission charged with drafting a reform of the upper chamber has adopted a report upon this subject presented by Senator Arcoleo. The resolution of Signor Finali (since elected president of the commission) which was passed on August 6, charged the latter, composed of nine members, to study "the opportuneness, the method, and the extent of the reform."

It is well, in the first place, to recall the present composition of the Italian Senate. By the terms of Articles 33 and 34 of the statute the Senate is composed, outside of the princes of the royal family (who take their seats when twenty-one and vote when twenty-five), of an unlimited number of members appointed for life by the King, among citizens aged at least forty, and taken from certain categories; namely: *the clergy* (archbishops, and bishops); *science and public education* (members of the Royal Academy of Sciences chosen within the last seven years; regular members of the council of higher instruction who have served seven years); *the elective bodies* (president of the Chamber of

Deputies, deputies who have served three sessions, or six years, presidents of the provincial councils who have been elected to that office three times); *high officials* (ministers or secretaries of state, ambassadors, ministers plenipotentiary in office since three years, councilors of state in office since five years); *the judiciary* (first presidents and presidents of the Courts of Cassation and Accounts, first presidents of the Courts of Appeal, advocate-general at the Courts of Cassation and procurators-general after five years of service, presiding judges in the Courts of Appeal after three years, counselors of the Courts of Cassation and Accounts after five years, advocates-general and fiscales-general after five years); *the army* (general officers of the army and navy, major-generals and rear-admirals after five years of active service as such, intendants-general after seven years); *the heaviest taxpayers* (those paying 3000 francs annually in direct taxes since three years on their property or their industry); finally, those who "*by their services or their worth have shed luster on the country.*" The number of senators is, theoretically, unlimited. It was 322 in 1874. It has since been increased to 390.

The object of the reform considered by the commission was to modify the distribution of the categories and to change the method of recruitment: it was not, therefore, properly speaking, a constitutional problem that they had to solve but simply a question of application. They pointed out, by way of justification, that all the countries of Europe have introduced amendments in the recruiting of their upper houses, and that Italy alone remained faithful to a superannuated system. The thing to do, then, was to revise the categories, to modernize them, and likewise to give public opinion a share in choosing the senators. That is what the commission proposes to provide in designating three great classes—officials, the science and education, political and economic functions or powers. Of the 350 members of which the upper chamber would henceforth be composed, the King would choose, directly, a little less than a third. The rest would be elected under conditions which it is interesting to recount; namely, by special

colleges whose membership would represent actual groups of interests or of endowments.

The first category of senators elected (science and education) would be chosen by the professors of the universities, forming a national college; it would send a contingent of thirty representatives. The second (political and economic functions or powers) would be more numerous. Former members of the Chamber of Deputies would figure there to the number of 40, heavy tax-payers (*censiti*) to that of 90. Here the electors would be the senators, the deputies, the members of the provincial councils and the communal assemblies; and also the economic and commercial elements—presidents of chambers of commerce, of agricultural associations, of workmen's societies. It is hoped that thus an elective body will be formed that will

give harmonious expression to the various forces that contribute to the life of the nation. There would be fifteen electoral colleges summoned to exercise their choice in virtue of the statute, and to introduce thus, without any literal change in the constitution, a new factor in recruiting the upper house.

The newspapers speak in eulogistic terms of the work of the commission. The formula upon which it has decided appears, indeed, ingenious and adapted to constitute an upper chamber provided with the requisite authority in relation to the country and to the Chamber of Deputies.

ENGLISH AND SPANISH IN THE PHILIPPINES

WHICH of the two languages, English or Spanish, dominates or will eventually dominate, in the archipelago? This is the question upon which the Filipino review *Cultura Filipina* (Manilla) has opened a discussion. The controversy has been carried on by Antonio Medrano, a Spaniard, and by Lloyd Burlingham, an American. According to the former, statistics prove abundantly that Castilian is the language most generally used in the archipelago, not only as far as mere numbers go, but also taking into consideration its cultural influence.

The latter answers that, while the Castilian language is the principal vehicle adopted by literary culture in the Philippines, English is more commonly used by the average individual. If there are but few Filipino authors who write in English, the reason, Mr. Burlingham says, is that the older generation is still more conversant with Castilian than with English.

Cultura Filipina, commenting upon the two articles editorially, argues that "Mr. Burlingham's statement is illogical, for in every part of the world the language spoken by the largest majority is also written by the largest majority. It says:

Mr. Burlingham hopes that the day will come when English will be more widely used than Spanish. We have no objection to the coming of that day, for we recognize the commercial superiority of the English language. But we would consider it as a national disgrace if the Filipino people should forget the Castilian language. We shall not oppose the dissemination of English, but we shall defend our own tongue. If both can thrive together, so much the better. If not, let the American propagate their language, for it is their right and their duty. On our part we will also fight for the survival of Castilian, for therein lies our duty and our right. The Americans have force on their

side, since they are in political control of the Islands. We rely only on one factor, the soul of a people, which, like the soul of a man, is immortal."

Another article bearing on the same subject and in the same review, from the pen of the Filipino author, Joaquin Pellicena Camacho, enlarges as follows upon the bonds still uniting Spain and the lost colonies:

Time, which purifies and heals, has brought about the reconciliation of the great pan-Iberian family and has reestablished the intellectual bonds which unite the men who people Iberia, Coloniberia, and Pan Iberia, in Europe, Asia and America. At the present day the Mexican and the Argentinian no longer claims to be the descendant or the conqueror of the Aztecs or of the Guaranies? No longer do the Spanish poets characterize their brothers of beyond the ocean as traitors. . . . The same is true of Chile, of Cuba, of Colombia. The same is true of the Philippines. In hours of anger and in the course of polemics the names of Tupas, Hamabar, Soliman, Lakandola, may be used for purposes of sentimental, historical or poetical discussion; no one, however, can deny that the Philippine nationality, as a nationality, with all its idiosyncrasies as a distinct nation, as a distinct personality, was founded by Lagazpi and Urdaneta. . . . We of the great pan-Iberian family belong ethnologically to one and the same race; for the Spanish never exterminated the indigenous races, but lived in peace with them and intermarried with them, transforming them through the influence of their civilization and of Christianity, but preserving all of their characteristics which contained germs of life and variety. . . . Twelve years ago the four century old domination of Spain over the Islands was brought to an end, but those twelve years have only had a soothing and tonic effect, obliterating the memory of every small unpleasantness in the past. . . . The shells from Dewey's guns could not and did not destroy the Filipino soul. The civilizing, the constructive work of Spain in the Philippines was indestructible. . . . Our flag has been lowered, but there remains with our spirit the incomparable and splendid language of the Spanish race, discoverer of new worlds and redeemer of nations."

VARIED VIEWS OF TOLSTOY

THE century in which Tolstoy "mostly lived and mostly wrought had among its many great names few more memorable than his if it had any." Such is the dictum of William Dean Howells, whose critical judgment of the great Russian, which originally appeared in the *North American Review* two years ago, is reprinted in that publication in its issue for December. There was Napoleon and there was Lincoln, continues the veteran American novelist, elaborating his dictum. "Then there was Tolstoy—in an order which time may change, though it appears to me certain that time will not change the number of these supreme names."

There is, Mr. Howells would have us believe, a sort of "representative unity" in the relation of these historic characters one to the other. He says on this point:

If you fancy Napoleon the incarnation of the selfish force which inspired and supported his own triumphant enemies in their reaction against progress; if you suppose Lincoln the type of humanity struggling toward the ideal in the regeneration of the world's polity, you may well conceive of Tolstoy as the soul's criticism of the evil and the good which, however wholly or partially they knew it, the others imperfectly did. The work of Lincoln was no more final than the work of Napoleon; and like Napoleon's and like Lincoln's, Tolstoy's work has been without finality. So far as I can perceive, it has even been without effect in a civilization which calls itself Christian, but which has apparently been no more moved by the human soul as it was in Tolstoy than by the divine spirit as it was in Christ. At first, indeed, the world was startled by the spectacle of a man of the highest rank, of a most ancient lineage, of great wealth, of renown in arms and in letters, putting from him fame and ease and honor, and proposing literally to obey the word of God, by making himself as one of the least of the brethren of Christ. It was a very curious sight, a bit droll, rather mad, wholly extraordinary. The world could hardly believe its eyes. It rubbed the sleep of two thousand years out of them at the sound of this voice crying in the wilderness, this voice that had so charmed it in fable, and bidding it prepare the way of the Lord and make His paths straight. Some tears came into its eyes, and some smiles; but after a while its lids fell again, and all was as before. The event, one of the greatest in the history of mankind, has been without perceptible effect in civilization.

Admitting that, regarded as an incitement to the literal following of Christ's commands, "the teaching and the living of Tolstoy have been a failure so utter, so abject, that the heart sickens in considering it," Mr. Howells passes to a consideration of the literary achievements of the great Russian. He cannot resist, however, this reference to the "spiritual content" of Tolstoy's fiction:

He says and he shows that the selfish life, the individual, the personal life, is always misery and despair, and, except for some moments of mad oblivion, is constant suffering. Some of the most beautiful, the most wonderful, passages of his fiction, both that which is real and that which is ideal in terms, embody events in which he seizes and perpetuates the heavenly rapture of a supreme act of self-sacrifice, of identification. The imagination has never gone farther than in these portrayals of mystical ecstasy; in them, indeed, the human consciousness of the original and final divine is suggested as no polemic could urge it.

Very suggestive and graphic is Mr. Howells' description of how he was impressed by the artist Tolstoy.

His literature, both in its ethics and æsthetics, or of its union of them, was an experience for me somewhat comparable to the old-fashioned religious experience of people converted at revivals. Things that were dark or dim before were shone upon by a light so clear and strong that I needed no longer to grope my way to them. Being and doing had a new meaning and a new motive and I should be an ingrate unworthy of the help I had if I did not own it, or if I made little of it.

I first saw his book, "My Religion," in the house of two valued friends who spoke of it bewilderedly, as something very strange, which they could not quite make out. They were far too good to deny its strong appeal, but they were too spiritually humble, with all their reason for intellectual pride, to be quite sure of themselves in its seemingly new and bold postulates, which were, after all, really so old and meek. They showed me at the same time the closely printed volumes of the French version of "War and Peace," for it was long before its translation into English, and they were again apparently baffled, for a novel so vast in scale, and so simple and sincere in the handling of its thronging events and characters, was something almost as alien to modern experience as the absolute truthfulness of "My Religion." By that time I had long known nearly all of Turgeniev, and something of Pushkin, but Tolstoy was a new name to me. It was recalled to me by yet another friend, who lent me "Anna Karénina" with the remark: "It is the old Seventh Commandment business, but it is not treated as the French treat it. You will be interested." The word was poor and pale for the effect of the book with me. The effect was as if I had never read a work of the imagination before. Now for the first time I was acquainted with the work of an imagination which had consecrated itself, as by fasting and prayer, to its creative office and vowed itself to none other service than the service of the truth. Here was nothing blinked or shirked or glossed, nothing hidden or flattered, in the deepest tragedy of civilized life. It was indeed the old Seventh Commandment business, not only not treated as the French treat it, but rightly placed as to the prime fact in its relation to all the other experiences of a sinning and agonizing soul.

Of "War and Peace," which he regards as "a homily, comprehensive and penetrating

beyond any direct sermoning," Mr. Howells observes:

We behold a multitudinous movement of human beings, each of whom is a strongly defined character in himself and is a type of innumerable like characters. Every passion is portrayed, every affection, every propensity, not because the author wished to include all in his scheme, but because the scheme was so fast that they could not be excluded. It is as if the story were built upon the divination of atomic activity in the moral as in the material universe where stocks and stones are the centers of motion as unceasing, unresting, as blind, as that of the stars in their courses, but not less guided and intended.

Tolstoy was an ideal combination of moralist and artist, we are reminded.

When he had recognized and appropriated the principle that to see the fact clearly by the inner light, and to show it as he saw it, was his prime office, all other things were added unto Tolstoy. In the presence of his masterpiece, you forget to ask for beauty, for style, for color, for drama; they are there, so far as they are not of naughtiness, in such measure as no other novelist has compassed. Every other novelist, therefore, shrinks and dwindles beside him; behind him, in the same perception, but not the full perception or the constant perception, come De Maupassant and Zola and Flaubert, Galdós and Pardo-Bazan, Verga, Björnson, and perhaps Hardy—yes, certainly, Hardy in "Jude,"—with, of course, Hawthorne from a wholly different air. . . . He has given many of his readers a bad conscience, and a bad conscience is the best thing a man can have. It may be the best thing that the world can have. At any rate, it can never be the same world it was before Tolstoy lived in it. Worse it may be, in mere shame and despair, or better in mere shame, but not imaginably the same. Such men do not die for all time. To the end of time they have their recurring palingenesis.

A Catholic Comment on Tolstoy's "Exaggerations"

"Tolstoy carried the doctrine of protest and revolt to extremes which, without his literary art, would have made his mission ridiculous and harmful and created grave suspicions of his mental sanity." This is the verdict of *America*, the Catholic weekly review (New York).

Tolstoy was a master in the art of writing. He had the power of seizing upon a sore in modern society, studying it with microscopic vision and picturing it with a clarity and strength of phrase which compelled wide attention. This power goes a long way to explain what else would be a mystery. With this gift of keen observation and vivid portrayal the diary of a surgeon in the ulcer ward of a hospital could be made the most popular book in a dozen nations. Tolstoy had the gift; and he made it subserve the squinting and myopic deductions of an unsound brain from facts which he saw and described with remarkable graphic intensity.

The editor of this religious journal does not deny "a large measure of sincerity" to Tolstoy, but deprecates what he calls exaggerations, since "a whirling dervish among the conspicuous advocates of any good cause will inevitably injure that cause in the eyes of those who are best qualified to help it along."

"Last of the Nineteenth Century Giants"

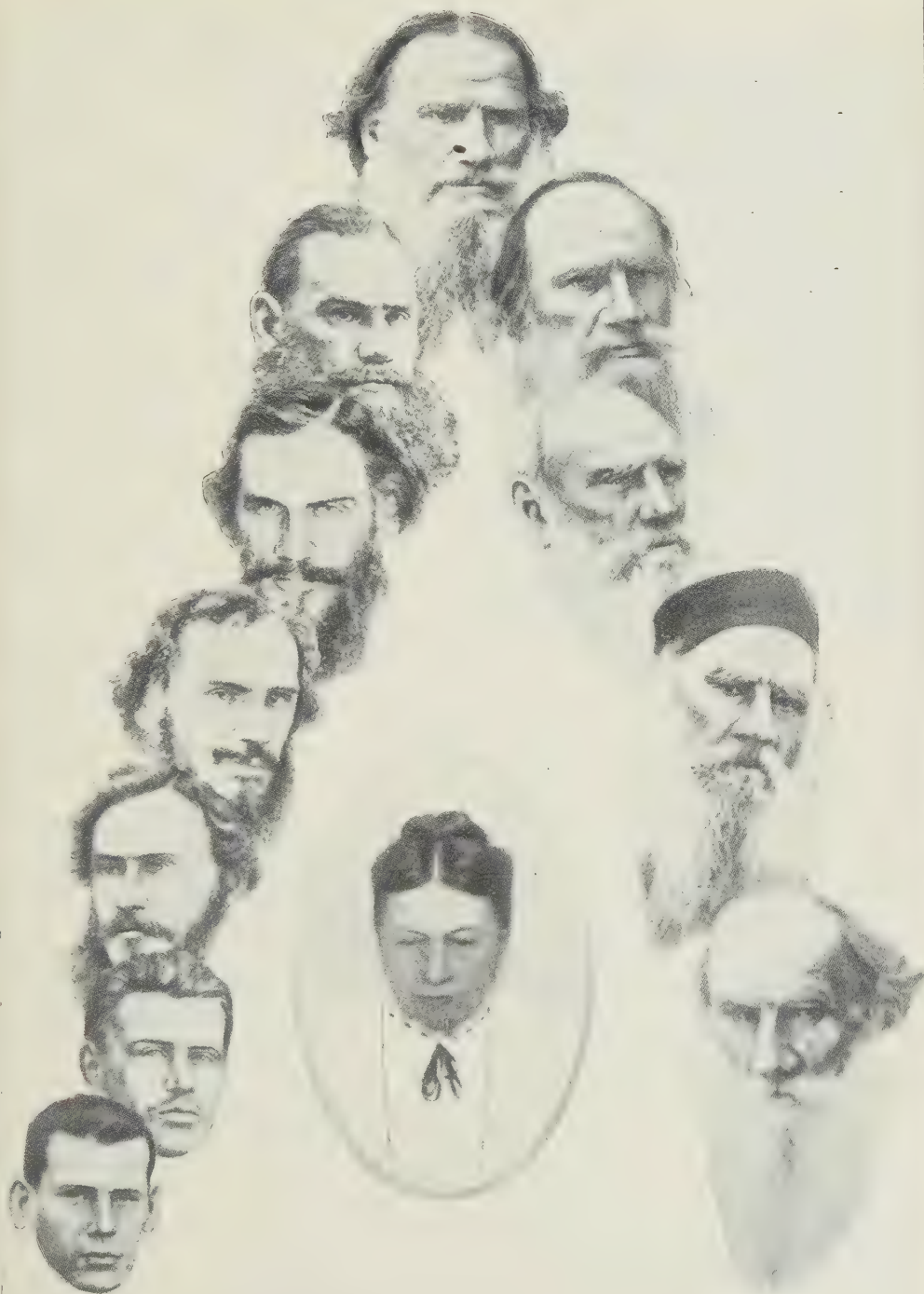
The comment of the critical literary journals agrees in the main with the opinions of Mr. Howells, as set forth above. The *Dial* characterizes Tolstoy as the "last of the Nineteenth Century Giants," and compares him to Shakespeare's King Lear. "His torn and indignant spirit could no longer bear to live among a people [Russians] fast lapsing into barbarism, a people that has well nigh forfeited all claim to be reckoned among civilized communities."

His reasoning was often childish, but his moral passion was overwhelming in its force. Thus, one need not accept the Tolstoyan conclusions to be a Tolstoyan in spirit, and those who upon purely intellectual grounds must maintain the attitude of antagonism may without shame pay the tribute of reverence to his whole-souled sincerity. His essential service was to persuade men to go straight to the heart of the fundamental problems of life, to strip them of their wrappings of custom and prejudice and tradition, and to solve them in the terms of an all-embracing human sympathy. The key to all these problems, Tolstoy held, was to be found in the gospels. He believed that Christianity—the literal teaching of its Founder—was workable. . . . The voice is stilled, but the record remains.

Was Tolstoy the "Real True Christian of the Age"?

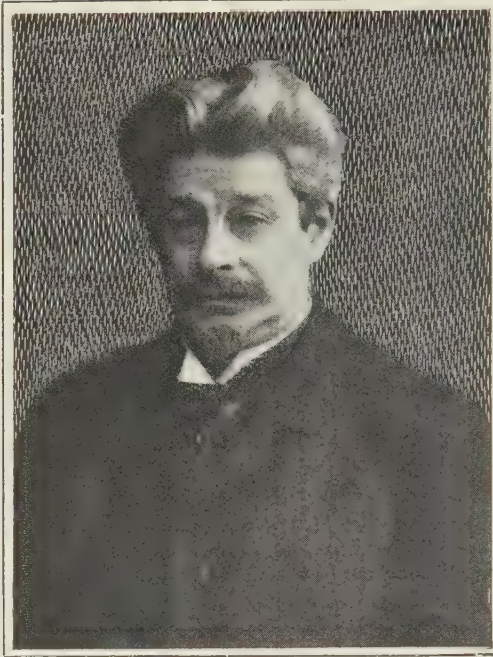
That Tolstoy was "the greatest thinker of this age of false philosophy" is the verdict of the Baba Bharati, the Hindoo sage from whose review "*The Light of India*," (formerly *East and West*) we have more than once quoted in these pages. The Baba prints a letter he received some years ago from the late Russian philosopher laying emphasis on the brotherhood of all mankind. Tolstoy was the real true Christian of the age, thinks Baba Bharati.

His convictions born of his firm grip of the inner laws of life the expressions of which are truths, which are changeless at all times, their forces dominated his consciousness, coursed through his blood, permeated the marrows of his old bones and built up his longevity. Tolstoy was a spiritual lion and when he roared out the truths of life, the other denizens of the world-jungle trembled and many scampered into their holes. A Saint at bottom, a true lover of God, his mission on earth was to turn his soul's X-ray upon the inward rottenness of the Church and Civilization and he has well performed that mission.



THE LATE COUNT LEO TOLSTOY AT DIFFERENT AGES
IN THE CENTER IS THE COUNTESS TOLSTOY

BRANDES, DENMARK'S FOREMOST PERSONALITY



GEORG BRANDES, THE CELEBRATED DANISH CRITIC AND AUTHOR

POETS have not infrequently become dominating influences in the life of a nation. There were moments when the will of Hugo seemed to sway the destinies of France. Björnson was popularly spoken of as "the uncrowned king of Norway." With the mass of his people, the word of Tolstoy went as far, if not farther, than that of the Czar. But that such a position might be reached by a literary critic was never heard of until Anders Krogvig pointed out in *Samtiden* (Christiania), that Georg Brandes, professor of literature at the University of Copenhagen, must be recognized as "the central personality of Denmark throughout an extended and eventful period." All the world now recognizes Brandes as the most eminent living Scandinavian.

But the influence of Brandes does not only extend beyond his own field. It has made itself powerfully felt outside the limits of his own country. The renaissance of Scandinavian literature is traceable to him. Realism—not only in poetry but in any art—was unknown in the three Scandinavian countries until he made his now famous plea that the artist should "sing and paint and carve what

he himself was familiar with." From poetry and art that demand for a new and more clear-eyed truthfulness spread to every field of human activity, until, to-day, the three kingdoms are fermenting with new life and new thought. Nor has the fructifying influence of the Danish thinker been restricted to the peoples descended from a common Norse stock. It has made itself felt in Germany and France, in England and Russia, in Italy and the United States. In fact, it may be said that before him no literary critic, with the possible exception of Taine, ever during his own lifetime assumed such a far-reaching international importance. Says Mr. Krogvig, speaking of the scope of the influence exercised by Brandes:

Georg Brandes is the only Danish author whose name may be written across a whole era in the Danish people's history. Even in fields like the political one, where he never tried to become a leader and where he very rarely asserted himself directly, one meets everywhere with the traces of his activity. From everything of importance that may be recorded in cultural, political, social and religious development, threads lead back to him. Throughout an entire human lifetime he has stood as the one towering figure in regard to whom every mentally matured Dane has had to take sides. He is the one man to whom everything and everybody must be related for proper understanding. It does not seem that a literary critic ever held such a position in the life of his own nation.

In spite of all mutual antipathy between their natures, Mr. Krogvig holds that Björnson was the man with whom Brandes had most in common. In both he finds the same happy faculty for catching life in the process of growing, so to speak. Both have shown the same restless craving to discover everything useful and bring it into light. And both have been deeply concerned by the relationship between their own peoples and the rest of the civilized world. Recently Brandes has given much thought to the widely felt danger of Denmark's absorption by Germany. And he has sought an escape from this danger in a voluntary submission to an English protectorate. So far his countrymen have not shown themselves friendly to that suggestion, and it remains to be seen whether he can talk them around. He has done so before, in other matters, where the initial antagonism between himself and the rest of the people was not less sharply accentuated. He has become the most valuable natural asset of his country.

JOHN REDMOND ON WHAT IRELAND REALLY WANTS

JUST at this moment when the British periodical press has been printing so much on "The Irish Dictator with American Dollars," it may be worth while to quote a few sentences from the latest authoritative statement made by Mr. Redmond as to the aims and aspirations of the Irish Nationalist party. There is nothing new in what Mr. Redmond tells us, in his article in *Nash's Magazine* (London), but a restatement of the case in his own words will be useful. He says:

What Ireland wants is really so reasonable, so moderate, so commonplace in view of the experience of the nations, and especially of the British Empire, that, once it is understood, all the fears and arguments of honest opponents must vanish into thin air. What Ireland wants is the restoration of responsible government, neither more nor less. The Irish demand is, in plain and popular language, that the government of every purely Irish affair shall be controlled by the public opinion of Ireland, and by that alone. We do not seek any alteration of the Constitution or supremacy of the Imperial Parliament. We ask merely

to be permitted to take our place in the ranks of those other portions of the British Empire—some twenty-eight in number—which, in their own purely local affairs, are governed by free representative institutions of their own.

After recounting the story of Ireland's fight for a separate Parliament, Mr. Redmond proceeds to describe, in doleful language, the retrogression of Irish life to-day.

Education admittedly is 50 per cent. below the standard of every European nation, and the taxation of the country per head of the population has doubled in fifty years, and by universal admission the civil government of the country is the most costly in Europe. The total civil government of Scotland (with practically the same population) was in 1906 £2,477,000. The cost of similar government in the same year in Ireland was £4,547,000. Ireland's judicial system costs £200,000 a year more than the Scotch. The Irish police costs exactly three times what the police of Scotland costs. The number of officials in Scotland is 963, with salaries amounting to £311,000. The number of officials in Ireland is 4539, with salaries amounting to £1,412,520. Per head



MR. ASQUITH'S DOUBLE SHUFFLE

IRISH JACK (the cowboy): "Say, I guess you're dancing some, now, pard. And I guess you'll jest hev to dance a while yet—so long as I whistle the chune, anyway." From the *Pall Mall Gazette* (London)

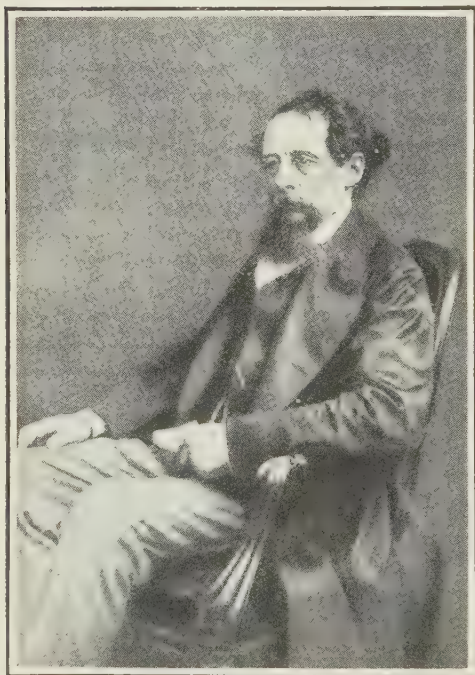
of the population, the cost of the present government of Ireland is twice that of England, and is far higher than that of Norway, Holland, France, Denmark, Portugal, Sweden, Italy, Spain, Roumania, Bulgaria, Greece, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, Germany, or Russia. In other words, Ireland, probably the poorest country in Europe, pays more for her government than any other nation. The secret of the inefficiency and the extravagance is identical—namely, the fact that it is a government not based upon the consent but maintained in actual opposition to the will of the governed.

The article concludes with these vigorous sentences:

We want an Irish Parliament, with an executive responsible to it, created by act of the Imperial Parliament, and charged with the management of purely Irish affairs (land, education, local govern-

ment, labor, industries, taxation for local purposes, law and justice, police, etc.), leaving to the Imperial Parliament, in which Ireland would probably continue to be represented, but in smaller numbers, the management, just as at present, of all Imperial affairs—army, navy, foreign relations, Customs, Imperial taxation, matters pertaining to the Crown, the Colonies, and all those other questions which are Imperial and not local in their nature; the Imperial Parliament also retaining an overriding supreme authority over the new Irish Legislature, such as it possesses to-day over the various Legislatures in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and other portions of the empire. This is "what Ireland wants." When she has obtained it a new era of prosperity and contentment will arise. As happened when Lord Durham's policy was carried out in Canada, men of different races and creeds will join hands to promote the well-being of their common country.

DICKENS AS A SOCIAL REFORMER



DICKENS AT SIXTY. THE PORTRAIT TO BE USED AT THE CENTENNIAL.

ENGLISH periodicals are publishing a great many articles on Dickens and his general influence, apropos of the Dickens centennial, which will be celebrated next year all over the English-speaking world. A recent number of the *London Bookman* contains a suggestive article on the novelist and social reform by a well-known Dickens enthusiast, Mr. W. B. Matz.

Not only did Dickens make his novels the vehicle for the remedying of many of the social ills and abuses of his time, but it is known by his speeches and letters, writes Mr. Matz, how keenly he had these things at heart. Also we have further evidence that he used his pen vigorously toward the same end in anonymous contributions to *Household Words* and other periodicals. Take the questions of prison reform, education, the housing of the poor, and the proper care and welfare of children. On all these problems we find that Dickens gave utterance to sentiments and facts regarding them that might have been written within the last few years.

Education of the masses he looked upon as the panacea for most of the ills which beset life. In 1847 he wrote in an article on London crime that ignorance was the cause of the worst evils. He advocated schools of industry where the simple knowledge learned from books could be made immediately applicable to the business of life, and directly conducive to order, cleanliness, punctuality, and economy. At the time of the cholera outbreak in 1854 he addressed a striking article to workingmen, in which he called upon them to assert themselves and combine and demand the improvement of the towns in which they live. But it was our prisons which were a sort of nightmare to him. Keep people from the contamination of the prisons at all costs. Teach children not only that the prison is a place to avoid; teach them how to avoid it. He also advocated the abolition of capital punishment, and though he was not successful in bringing about this change in the law, he was instrumental in doing away with public executions by a vigorous letter to the *Times* which started the agitation.

Mr. Matz strongly approves of the scheme put forward by the *Strand Magazine*, namely,

that there shall be a specially designed Dickens stamp issued at a penny for purchasers to place in the covers of the Dickens volumes they possess, the money accruing from the sale to be handed to the Dickens family as a testimonial of the world's appreciation of what the great writer has done for the benefit of humanity at large.

PETROLEUM IN PAN-AMERICA

THE romantic history of the development of the oil industry in North America has often been narrated, but seldom in so interesting a fashion as by Mr. Russell Hastings Millward in the *Bulletin* of the Pan-American Union. The remarkable progress in oil production in this country is graphically illustrated by this writer in the following paragraph:

The total flow of oil in the United States for the year 1859, the first of which any official record has been kept, amounted to only 2000 barrels. For the year 1909 the production amounted to over 178,000,000 barrels, which, if placed in a single body, would be sufficient to float a gigantic fleet of 935 *Dreadnought* battleships of the new 26,000-ton *Arkansas* type of the United States Navy.

And the accompanying table shows that to January 1, 1909, the production of oil in eighteen States of the United States during the previous fifty years reached the enormous total of nearly 2,000,000,000 barrels, or 84,000,000,000 gallons.

STATE AND YEARS OF PRODUCTION.

	Barrels of 42 Gallons.
Pennsylvania and New York, 1859 to 1909	698,009,862
Ohio, 1876 to 1909	377,108,902
California, 1876 to 1909	246,820,562
West Virginia, 1876 to 1909	194,562,894
Texas, 1889 to 1909	129,026,455
Indiana, 1889 to 1909	93,411,140
Oklahoma, 1891 to 1909	90,883,206
Illinois, 1889 to 1909	62,551,789
Kansas, 1859 to 1909	44,158,931
Louisiana, 1902 to 1909	34,248,641
Colorado, 1887 to 1909	9,253,938
Kentucky and Tennessee, 1883 to 1909	6,004,345
Wyoming and Utah, 1894 to 1909	103,560
Missouri and Michigan, 1889 to 1909	36,917
Total (United States—18 States)	1,986,180,942

But the production of oil on the American continent is not confined to the United States. Petroleum has been found both in Central and in South America; and Mr. Millward gives a comprehensive survey of the various oil-producing countries, which we condense for the readers of the REVIEW.

INCREASING PRODUCTION IN ARGENTINA

After three years of persistent effort and exploration, a spring of petroleum, at a depth of 1738 feet, and several producing wells are now being worked by the government and by one private company at Comodoro Rivadavia, Chubut. The product compares favor-

ably with that of Ohio and Pennsylvania. An English company has a well of high-grade oil, flowing at the rate of 80 barrels daily, at San Rafael, Mendoza.

BRAZIL'S NEW DISCOVERY

Although asphalt of various grades has been found and largely used in manufactures in the republic, it was only quite recently that petroleum was discovered. A company is being organized to develop the industry in the district of Ibitinga, Sao Paulo. Extensive deposits of lignite occur at Camamu, on the Marahu River, from a ton of which three barrels of oil can be produced.

GREAT PROSPECTS IN CHILE

Until recently crude oil has been imported for use on the Taltal Railway, but an American company has now brought in a 500-barrel well at Carelmapu, 500 miles south of Valparaiso, and experts report that this field will, under proper development, become one of the world's great producers of high-grade petroleum.

ASPHALT IN CUBA

In 1881 five wells of excellent naphtha were sunk at depths from 300 to 800 feet, and for many years they have been profitably worked; but crude oil for refining on the island is largely imported, 5,493,314 gallons having been received from the United States in the year ending June 30, 1909. The asphalt gathered for about seven years at Mariel, near Havana, is used in London and Chicago for the paving of streets.

ALREADY A LARGE BUSINESS IN MEXICO

Although petroleum has long been known to exist, systematic exploration of the Mexican oil fields has extended over a period little more than six years. There is, however, every indication that the republic will take a leading place in the production and refining of petroleum. Wells have been brought in at



OIL WORKS IN NORTHERN MEXICO

Juan Casiana (2400 bbls. daily), near the Panuco River, about fifteen miles from Tampico (500 bbls.), and one of liquid asphalt (400 bbls.), near the Tamesi River. A company that has acquired 400,000 acres at El Elbano, 30 miles from Tampico, has developed thirty-five wells (6000 bbls.), and the oil is used on the national railways of Mexico as fuel for the locomotives. It was near San Geronimo that "Dos Bocas," the greatest gusher in the history of the oil industry, was brought in on July 4, 1908.

This immediately caught fire, and burned for a period of fifty-seven days, during which time the flames mounted to heights ranging from 800 to 1500 feet and measured forty to seventy-five feet in width, and it has been variously estimated that from 60,000 to 500,000 barrels of oil were consumed daily before the fire was extinguished and the fields

exhausted. At night the light from this gusher was visible for more than a hundred miles at sea, and newspapers could be clearly read at a distance of seventeen miles.

On the Isthmus of Tehuantepec about 25 wells have been sunk, and the product (500 bbls.) is conveyed 10 miles by pipe line to a refinery at Minatitlan. In 1908 the total oil production of Mexico was 3,481,410 barrels, and in 1909, 27,554,581 gallons of crude oil were imported from the United States.

A GROWING BUSINESS IN PERU

For the calendar year 1908 the total petroleum production in Peru was 1,011,180 barrels. Steamers between Callao and Panama, making 19 knots an hour, burn Peruvian



A NAPHTHA LAKE IN MEXICO

crude oil. Refined Peruvian oil products have taken gold medals at Lima, Quito, Berlin, and San Francisco. Since 1883 over 300 producing wells have been sunk in the Zorritos district, and in Punta Lobitos, over 60 wells, producing annually 500,000 barrels. In the Negritos district over 250 wells have an aggregate flow of 500,000 barrels annually. A remarkable asphalt deposit, about eleven miles from Negritos, the product of which is evaporated for asphaltic paint, is known as the "Brea Asphalt Flow."

VENEZUELA'S ASPHALT RICHES

Some of the world's greatest asphalt deposits are found here. The Guanoco lake

during the dry season—January-June—produces over 20,000 tons of asphalt. From July to December, 1909, 17,000 tons of crude asphalt, valued at \$85,000, were shipped from this district. Petroleum also is found in abundance in several districts.

IN OTHER LATIN AMERICAN LANDS

Petroleum exists in the Dominican Republic, in Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Panama, and Uruguay; but either the fields have not been opened for production or they have been worked only to a limited extent. The uses of petroleum are almost unlimited, ranging from fuel for battleships to the humble shoe-polish.

HEAD-HUNTING SUBJECTS OF THE UNITED STATES

IT is not pleasant to have to admit that, after nearly twelve years of American occupation, the gruesome practice of taking human heads is still common in at least one of the Philippine Islands; but the fact is brought home to us by no less an authority than Dr. David P. Barrows, of the University of California, formerly chief of the Bureau of Non-Christian Tribes and Superintendent of Education in the Philippines. Dr. Barrows, writing in the *Popular Science Monthly*, states that although head-hunting has been particularly associated with the Igorot peoples of the Cordillera of Luzon, the most persistent and dreaded headhunters are a forest-dwelling people in the almost impenetrable mountain region at the junction of the Sierra Madre range with the Caraballo Sur, on that island. They have been called by so many different names that several writers have erroneously described them as different peoples; Dr. Barrows designates them "the Ilongot or Ibilao of Luzon."

Almost nothing is known of the Ilongot till late in the Spanish rule of the Philippines. In the records of several small mission stations, established along the upper waters of the Pampanga in the latter half of the eighteenth century, references are made to the "Ilongotes" of the mountains to the east; and they are variously described as "savages," "treacherous murderers," and "cannibals," and as being wholly untamable. Dr. Barrows says they have continued much the same to the present day. From their homes in the thick jungle, where it is difficult to

follow them, they "steal out of the forests to fall upon the wayfarer or resident of the valley and leave him a beheaded and dismembered corpse." The following are a few instances which have come under Dr. Barrows' own notice or investigation:

In 1902, the presidente of Bambang, Nueva Vizcaya, informed me that four women had been killed while fishing a short distance from the town. In March of the same year, a party of Ilongot crossed the upper part of Nueva Ecija and in a barrio of San Quentin, Pangasinan, killed five people and took the heads of four. In November, 1901, near the barrio of Kita Kita, Nueva Ecija, an old man and two boys were killed, while a little earlier two men were attacked on the road above Karanglan, one killed and his head taken. In January, 1902, Mr. Thomson, the superintendent of schools, saw the bodies of two men and a woman on the road, six miles south of Karanglan, who had been killed only a few moments before. The heads of these victims had been taken and their breasts completely opened by a triangular excision, the apex at the collar bone and the lower points at the nipples, through which the heart and lungs had been removed and carried away. As late as a year ago (1909), on the trail to San Jose and Puncan, I saw the spot where shortly before four men were murdered by Ilongot from the "Biruk district." These men were carrying two large cans of "bino" or native distilled liquor, from which the Ilongot imbibed, with the result that three of their party were found drunk on the trail and were captured.

Nothing was done by the Spaniards to subdue or civilize these people; but since the American occupation progress has been made in the knowledge and control of them. In 1902 Dr. Barrows himself made a visit to one of their communities; in 1906 Mr. Dean C. Worcester, then Secretary of the Interior,



AN ILONGOT HUNTING PARTY

(The large nets carried by members of the party are stretched in the jungle across the game trails and animals are driven into them)

visited Dumbato, where he found "a few filthy Ilongot and some fine Negritos"; and from the spring of 1908 Dr. William Jones, of the Field Columbian Museum, lived for nearly a year with the Ilongot of the Upper Kagayan, and was then killed by them.

In May, 1909, Dr. Barrows, accompanied by Lieutenant Coon and six native soldiers, visited the Ilongot community of Patakgaao, which he describes as "composed of renegades and outlaws from several other communities, whose hand was against every man."

A good general idea of the Ilongot as a people may be gleaned from the following passage in Dr. Barrows' interesting article:

Ilongot can not be said to live in villages, for their houses are not closely grouped, but are scattered about within hallooing distance on the slopes of cañons where clearings have been made. Each little locality has its name and is usually occupied by families with blood or social ties between them, and several such localities within a few hours' travel of one another form a friendly group. Outside of this group all other Ilongot as well as all other peoples are blood enemies, to be hunted, murdered and decapitated as occasion permits.

Of the physical characteristics and social life of the Ilongot we read:

Their physical type is rather unlike that of any other Philippine people. The men are small, with long bodies and very short legs, weak, effeminate faces, occasionally bearded. Their color is brown.

Both men and women wear the long rattan waist belt, wound many times about the loins, with clouts and skirts of beaten bark cloth. They support life by cultivating a forest clearing. Their crops are rice, sweet potatoes, taro, maize, squash, bananas, tapioca, and, in some places, sugar-cane and tobacco. They are good gardeners; but all their cultivation is by hand, their tools being a short hoe and a wooden planting-stick, which is ornamented with very tasteful carving. Their homes are of two sorts: low wretched hovels two or three feet from the ground, and really well-constructed houses fully twelve feet above the ground set on posts or piles. Their arms are the spear, the jungle-knife, the bow and arrow, and a shield of light wood. They use the ingenious arrow of the Negrito with point attached by a long cord of rattan to the shaft, which separates and, dragging behind the transfixed animal, impedes its escape. When they climb the trees they sing to the spirits.

Of their political development Dr. Barrows writes:

There is no tribe. There is no chieftainship. There are no social classes. It is customary to hold a council called "pogon," but this is without definite constitution. The institutionless communities of the Ilongot are centuries of development behind the political life of the Igorot.

The taking of human heads is not only an act of vengeance, but is obligatory on other occasions. An Ilongot once told Dr. Barrows:

A man may during his life take three, four, or even five heads, but he must take *one*, and that

before he marries. This head he carries to the relations of his intended wife to prove that his heart and body are strong to defend her.

After the palay harvest, the bundles of unthreshed rice are neatly piled about a stake, and then, "for some ungodly reason, a human head is very desirable to place on top of this pole." The Ilongot of Patakgaio have no word for heaven, but they speak of "Impiedno" (*Infierno*).

What is to be done with the Ilongot? As Dr. Barrows observes, such a people are a problem to the government. They cannot be allowed to continue to harass and murder; and humanity does not permit their extermination. The solution seems to be education, and to find the right sort of American teacher, who shall have jurisdiction over the Ilongot villages in his district. But such a teacher will take his life in his hands.

MODERN CULTIVATION OF PAPYRUS

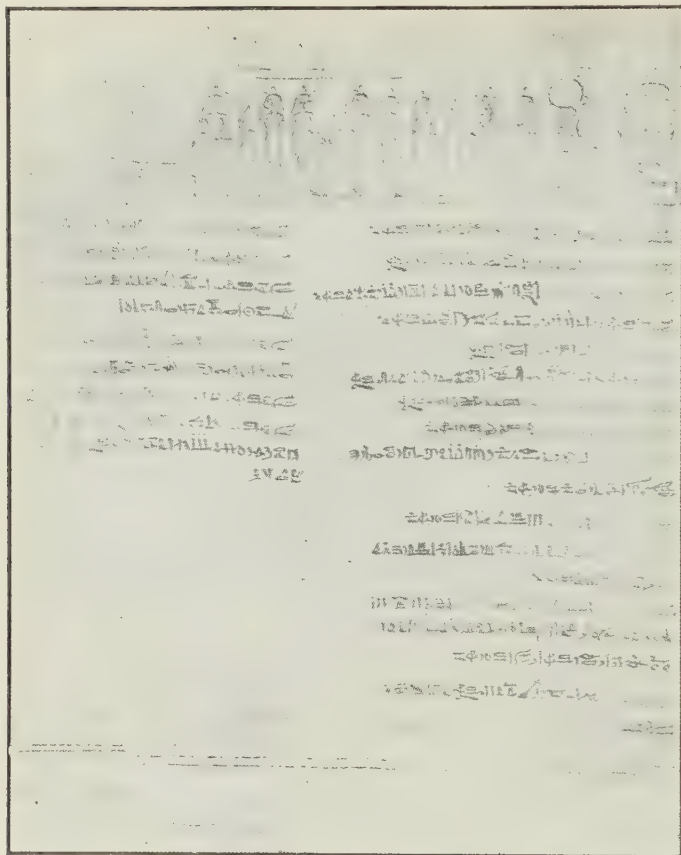
WHILE the forests of the New World are being ransacked to discover trees suitable for conversion into pulp for paper, comes the news that, after having been a lost art for more than a thousand years, the cultivation of the papyrus has been successfully revived in its ancient home in the Old World. There are several species of papyrus, all of them belonging to the order *Cyperaceæ*. One of them is the common house plant, the umbrella palm, known to botanists as *Cyperus alternifolius*; another is the *Cyperus corymbosus*, widely used in India for mats; but the wonderful reed that flourished on the banks

of the Nile, and made Egypt the great and powerful factor amongst the ancient civilizations that existed in the East thousands of years before the Christian Era, was the *Cyperus papyrus*, around which clusters the glamor of the ages, and by whose aid alone the records of dynasties long crumbled to dust have been preserved from oblivion. An account of the revival of papyrus-growing is contributed to the London *Graphic* by Mr. Horace Vickars Rees, who thus describes the famous plant:

It is a fibrous reed which attains a height of from twelve to fourteen feet in a surprisingly short



PAPYRUS AS CULTIVATED IN MODERN EGYPT



A FAMOUS PAPYRUS OF ANTIQUITY

(Now in the British Museum)

space of time, and was utilized by the ancient Egyptians for a variety of useful purposes besides the manufacture of the crude, but all-enduring, papyri rolls which modern researches have brought to light. From the fibrous layers of the stem they made mats, sails, cordage, sandals, cloth, and even light boats and skiffs to navigate the shallows of the Nile.

Nor did the Egyptians neglect its head of brownish flowers, which Strabo describes as a "plume of feathers," and Pliny aptly compares to the Thyrsus of Bacchic fame, it being utilized in the form of garlands to adorn the shrines of the gods.

The chief use of the plant, however, was in the manufacture of a kind of paper. Strips of the pith were placed side by side on a flat surface, and over this layer was placed a second at right angles to the first, the whole being then pressed into a sheet to the formation of which the natural gum of the plant materially contributed, and, when dried, the sheet was ready for use. On the earliest monuments the papyrus is represented in long rectangular sheets, rolled, and tied with a string. At a much later period it was no

longer rolled, but was used in square pages bound together like modern books. The rolls and sheets varied considerably as to dimensions. In some cases—for burial with the dead—they reached 144 feet in length. The *Theban Book of the Dead*, now in the British Museum, consists of a papyrus roll 122 feet long and about 20½ inches wide. The earliest papyrus to which a date can be assigned is little later than 3600 B. C. Quoting Mr. Rees again:

No commodity was more highly prized amongst neighboring nations than the crude sheets manufactured by the Egyptians and pasted together to form the rolls of papyri, and great was the wealth that flowed to the coffers of Egypt in consequence of the commerce it produced. For a long time the city of Alexandria jealously monopolized the privilege of paper-making, and was thus enabled to supply the needs of surrounding countries and to collect a library of world-wide renown for herself.

The haughty refusal of the Egyptians to supply it to certain potentates was one of the causes which led to the employment of whilom customers of other substances, and by the time of Charlemagne papyrus had fallen from its high estate, and was no longer known to Europe. As the Prophet Isaiah had foretold among the tribulations destined to fall on the recreant Egyptians, "The paper reeds by the brooks . . . and everything sown by the brooks, shall wither away and be no more."

It was the ominous warning of the experts concerning the near approach of a paper famine, owing to the rapid demolition of the world's forests, that caused certain adventurous spirits to determine upon an attempt at the resuscitation of the reed which made old Egypt great and famous. We read:

The task was entrusted to the well-known explorer and traveler, Mr. J. Smedley Norton, F. R. S. L., and for several years past this pioneer has been making travels and researches in the interior and amongst the Arabs for the purpose of bringing back to the Nile Delta the long-lost reed of wondrous quality. Time, money and determination have at length reaped their reward, and to-day, to judge by reports and the photographs recently received from Egyptian sources which we are able to present, the revival of the cultivation of Papyrus in the Nile Delta is an accomplished fact.

A plantation near Alexandria has been sown, reaped, and the produce gathered under Mr. Norton's directions, and transmitted to a well-known English paper-mill, where it has been manufactured into paper of excellent quality, which has already been utilized in the printing press with every success. Both the raw material and the finished article have been tested and favorably reported upon by the leading paper experts, and it is apparent that capital and enterprise are alone needed to develop the industry to enormous dimensions.

Among all the romance attaching to this remarkable plant, perhaps nothing is more

striking than the fact that after the lapse of 1000 years paper should be made from its fibers by modern machinery. And, as Mr. Rees points out, there are two very important commercial considerations connected with the revival of the cultivation of the papyrus: trees supplying wood-pulp, on which reliance is mainly placed for the world's supply of paper-making material, require from forty to fifty years to attain maturity; a field of papyrus will yield three crops annually, and can furnish nearly one hundred tons to the acre.

JAPAN'S MODERNIZED CAPITAL

THOSE familiar with the general aspect of the imperial capital of Japan in former times would hardly recognize it to-day, so marvelous and rapid a transformation has it recently undergone," writes Mr. Benjiro Kusakabe, the chief engineer of the city, in the *Japan Magazine*. The quaint old structures and the primitive methods of locomotion have given place to elegant new buildings and to modern facilities, foremost among the latter being the electric car system. It was in fact the installation of the latter which, more than anything else, hastened the modernization of Tokyo. The widening and straightening of the streets, to admit of the operation of the lines, necessitated the removal of many old buildings and in turn led to the construction of many new ones. The car lines have resulted in an enormous extension of travel and traffic, the fare of four sen (two cents) enabling a passenger to ride to any part of the city.

Tokyo has running through it no fewer than fifty-six streams and canals, and the number of bridges spanning them is about 480. We read:

Of these, 166 are of stone, 26 are of iron, and 289 are of wood. The most famous of them is known as *Nihonbashi*, or Japan Bridge; all distances in the Empire are measured from this spot. This bridge is now under reconstruction, and when completed, a year hence, it will be a magnificent double-arched structure of granite, 162 feet long by 90 feet wide.

Tokyo is divided into two parts by the Sumida River, a stream some 600 feet wide, which is to the Japanese capital what the Thames is to London. The important question of breathing-spaces has not been neglected. To quote Mr. Kusakabe further:

The three great lungs of Tokyo are parks of considerable acreage:

Shiba Park, where are the tombs of the Tokugawa Shoguns; Uyeno Park, which was also formerly a temple enclosure; and Hibiya Park, a beautiful tract lately planted and laid out in Occidental style in the heart of the city. Eighteen other parks of smaller dimensions will in time be laid out in various parts of the capital.

The improvement works have necessitated the filling up of most of the old moats which were a notable feature of Tokyo. In the matter of drainage, Tokyo is not well off. A better system is needed; but the contemplated outlay is about 36,000,000 yen (1 yen = 99½ cents), and owing to lack of funds the work has had to be postponed. At present the city has to be content with surface drainage; but as all ordure is disposed of by manual labor, this system is not so dangerous as might at first appear.

Tokyo possesses a magnificent system of waterworks. The supply of water is obtained from Lake Inokami, about 15 miles from the city; and the works are calculated to supply each inhabitant with 4 cubic feet of water a day. Begun in 1882, the system was not completed till 1898, the total cost being about 10,000,000 yen.

Plans have been proposed for harbor construction and improvement, which, if carried into effect, would make Tokyo one of the finest ports in the world. There are to be two harbors, an inner and an outer, connection between the two being maintained by canal. Unfortunately "it is probable that for lack of the wherewithal these plans will be indefinitely postponed."

The new buildings erected in Tokyo were in several instances designed after Western models, and they combine architectural beauty with stability in a remarkable degree. Mr. Kusakabe says of them:

Among the more remarkable of these are the new theater for wrestlers and the new National Thea-



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A STREET IN MODERN TOKYO

(Note the American-made trolley cars)

ter. The former is an institution peculiar to Japan, and the sport, much enjoyed by the populace, is on the whole more healthy and refined than a bullfight or a prizefight. The new National Theater is an imposing structure, steel-ribbed and of brick and stone; and the interior style and appointments are second to none in Europe or America. . . . Mention might well be made, too, of the new palace of the Imperial Crown Prince of Japan,

both in architecture and cost the finest building in the Empire, and with an interior of exceeding magnificence. The new Department of Communication building, recently finished, is also a massive pile of imposing appearance. . . . Indeed, when all the new buildings, now either in course of construction or contemplated in the near future, are completed, Tokyo will be both in appearance and reality one of the finest capitals of the world.

NEWSPAPER ENTERPRISE IN CHINA

THERE are several so-called Western inventions for which a more or less satisfactory claim of priority can be made for China; *e. g.* the telephone, gunpowder, and the mariner's compass. But China's claim to have the oldest newspaper is beyond dispute. For nearly twelve hundred years the *Tching-pao* (*News of the Capital*), or, as it is commonly known to Westerners, the *Peking Gazette*, has been issued daily. According to Mr. Franklin Ohlinger, who writes

an article in *World's Work*, (London),

its twenty-odd octavo pages still make their regular appearance, filled with imperial decrees, notices of appointments, and memorials from such high dignitaries as have been accorded the privilege of addressing the throne. These leaves are loosely stitched together in a cover of imperial yellow, which distinguishes the publication as the official organ of the Government.

Though the *Gazette* had its imitators in the provincial capitals, there was nothing in the

way of criticism in the direction of molding public opinion or of giving general information. Not until Christian missions were established in the Middle Kingdom did newspapers in the modern sense of the word come to be printed in Chinese. From the publication of religious books the missionaries soon branched out into journalism. Of their religious papers, the *Chinese Christian Intelligencer* and the *Christian Advocate*, both of them published in Shanghai, are the principal ones. These were so successful that the *Sin Wan Pao* (*Daily Chronicle*) and the *Tung Pao* (*Eastern Times*), the oldest dailies of Shanghai, were instituted.

It was, however, the uprising of 1900 that gave the greatest impetus to journalism in China. To quote from Mr. Ohlinger's article:

The occupation of Peking by foreign armies, the flight of the imperial court, and the terrible punitive expeditions, all combined to shatter the traditional notions of their own superiority which had so long been entertained by the Chinese. They were now willing and anxious to learn the sources of Western efficiency. . . . In 1905 it was estimated that no less than six hundred treatises on scientific subjects had been translated from foreign languages into Chinese. Students were sent abroad in great numbers. In 1897, Commissioner McLeavy Brown had established the Chinese imperial post and had put into effect a schedule of postal rates which was probably the lowest in the world. Thus, both the demand and the facilities for a secular press had come into being.

It was the Japanese who first appreciated the opportunities afforded by the new conditions. A college, where Japanese youths were instructed in the geography, resources, and commerce of China, had for several years been maintained at Shanghai by the chambers of commerce of the leading Japanese cities, and Japanese interest had owned the *Universal Gazette* of Shanghai; and now Japanese enterprise started new journals at Foochow, Hankow, and other important cities. At the present time the British and Germans each control a newspaper in Peking, and the French *L'Impartial* at Tientsin is a semi-official organ.

Unfavorable comment has been suppressed in so arbitrary a manner in the past that a favorite plan now is for the Chinese to apply for a charter of incorporation from the British Crown Colony of Hong-kong. This entitles the newspaper company to the protection of the British flag, although the persons of the editors are still subject to Chinese authority; and many a too-outspoken editor has been exiled to the bleak deserts of Mongolia or subjected to punishment more severe. In spite of this, journalism is spreading so rapidly in the interior of China that statistics of the newspaper press of the entire country cannot be obtained. It is known, however, that Shanghai has eight dailies, Peking and



OFFICE AND STAFF OF THE "SIN-WAN-PAO" OF SHANGHAI

(The editor is on the left, smoking, the assistant in the center and the "copy boy" on the right)

Tientsin five each, Hankow three, and Foochow two. As regards the printing operations, human power still being the cheapest, the presses, which like most of the other equipment, come from Japan, are operated by men who receive about two dollars a month. As Chinese has no alphabet, the type is necessarily a much larger item in the expenses than with us. To quote Mr. Ohlinger further:

The paper is usually the poorest quality of tissue that will hold ink; it also comes from Japan. Even with this saving, the poverty of the people often makes original methods of circulation necessary. In some places the same editions are successively distributed to different sets of sub-

scribers, boys being employed to gather up the papers as soon as they have been read and carry them to another set of readers. . . . The Chinese dailies usually sell for seven or eight *cash* a copy [a little less than half a cent].

Notwithstanding the arbitrariness of official interference, the criticisms of the powers that be are exceedingly free; one editorial, cited by Mr. Ohlinger, going so far as to inform the Provincial Assembly that "when-ever the editors deem it advisable, they will express their own views of the course taken by the Assembly as a whole or by any individual member." Nothing could more vividly portray the rapid march of events in what was once slow old China.

THE RELIGIOUS SITUATION IN FRANCE

A CAREFUL analysis of the "crisis" in religious affairs in France is contributed to the *Hibbert Journal*, by the well-known French philosophic and religious writer, M. Paul Sabatier. Rome, this writer contends, has alienated the respect and confidence of the French clergy, and their obedience to the Vatican is now rendered "in darkness and discouragement." Meanwhile the laity have taken a neutral attitude, accepting neither the "puerile explanations" of Rome on the one hand, nor the sterile teachings of "Free Thought" on the other.

M. Sabatier does not consider the political aspect of the problem resulting from the separation of Church and State in the republic. He treats only of what he terms the moral crisis through which both the French clergy and the laity are passing.

"For the nonce," he says, "Rome commands and they obey, but obedience is rendered in gloom and depression. There exists no longer between the command received and the soul bound to fulfill it, the deep preëstablished harmony which alone can inspire perfect obedience and an enthusiasm strong enough to surmount all obstacles." The most important factor in the religious situation of France, says M. Sabatier, is, without a doubt, the teachings of Free Thought.

It is a movement inspired by the priests who have "broken" with Rome and who are endeavoring to establish and organize an Anti-Church in which the principles of truth would be embodied in opposition to the dogmas of the Catholic Church—other dogmas diametrically opposed to them. In other respects it presents an organization, a hierarchy, even a liturgy, patterned upon that of the Church. While the arbitrary proceedings of the

Curia, the incapacity of some of the clergy, and the scandal some of them have given here and there have helped to swell the ranks of Free Thought, those ranks are being as rapidly deserted by those for whom freedom and thought are not mere meaningless words. For them anti-clerical infallibility proves far more oppressive than Roman infallibility.

In considering the situation of the Catholic Church in its moral aspect, this writer goes on, it is important not to confound the Church with the Holy See.

The latter, like other governments is apt to forget the limits of its rule and is wont to act as if it were the Church herself. . . . It would be unjust to make the Church responsible for the mistakes and shortsightedness of some of her representatives.

The anguish which fills the hearts of so many French Catholics is not due to loss of faith, M. Sabatier maintains, nor to "deviation from righteousness of conduct, nor to weakening of purpose—but because of the strength with which they have loved their country and have tried to live in their time."

They are passing through a purely moral crisis, far graver than that of philosophic and scientific modernism. Modernism, in all this, counts for nothing. Neither bishops, priests, or the laity whose trials we have had in mind, have become contaminated by the famous heresy. Meanwhile, the great majority of the people in France is waiting. They feel that another period in its history is about to unfold,—that the temple has to be rebuilt. Neither accepting the simple explanations of the mysteries of life and of duty offered by the Church of Rome, nor tempted by the teachings of Free Thought, which preaches easy pleasure, living from day to day, the stupidity of self-denial, of love and of heroism, it stands reserved—equally removed from the one as from the other.

THE NEED OF ECONOMIZING

WITH OTHER NEWS OF BUSINESS AND INVESTMENT

Savings Withdrawn

"DON'T mention my name" begged one New York savings-bank president after another when interviewed last month by representatives of this department. "Don't identify my bank in your story; under that condition I'm willing to tell you that our deposits *did* fall off this summer in the most astonishing way."

Everywhere the REVIEW OF REVIEWS inquirers went they met similar replies. Their careful canvass was being made to anticipate the report of the Banking Superintendent of New York State that will show the condition of savings banks on January 1, 1911, as compared with six months before. Financial people always find these figures significant. For every business man, investor and student of conditions, the flow of money into savings banks, or out of them, forms an excellent barometer. This year the report is awaited with real anxiety.

Since the spring, great enterprises have been checked or curtailed or abandoned "through lack of capital." Capitalists have been unwilling to buy securities in a big way. Small investors, the kind that keep their eyes open, have profited through the low prices of good bonds.

No country can prosper, however, that does not go ahead. The refusal of the professional investor, whether trust company or "magnate," to take the new blocks of bonds that would soon have represented new railroad tracks and cars, new factories and public works, is the fundamental cause, in the final analysis, of complaint. It may be affected by political suspicions, or Supreme Court law suits in suspense, or public opposition to certain corporations and corporation methods. But no real check to the flow of capital into honest and productive enterprises can continue—unless it be that American wage-earners are spending more than they are saving.

It means a good deal, therefore, that the REVIEW OF REVIEWS canvass among the New York County savings banks revealed, in almost every case, a tendency on the part of depositors to take more money out than they put in. No less than \$3,000,000 had been withdrawn, during July and August, from one

of the \$100,000,000 savings institutions in New York County. From another big one approximately the same sum had been removed in about the same period. A \$60,000,000 bank had lost \$2,000,000; a \$30,000,000 one, \$1,000,000; and nearly as much had been withdrawn from an institution with \$20,000,000 deposits.

The Center of Savings Banks

FOLKS who hate statistics may wonder why the savings institutions of New York County are taken so seriously. They may be surprised to learn that 20 per cent.—a full fifth—of the entire savings bank deposits of the nation are in this county (which does not include Brooklyn at all).

Only thirty-two banks are situated here; but they contain savings of no less than \$806,000,000, which is just about one fifth of the sum total of all American savings banks—\$4,070,400,000.

Moreover, these are institutions for savings purely. They do no commercial business whatever. Each of them was founded as a help to thrifty wage-earners. The average regulations read that no single deposit may be more than \$3,000 and that no more than \$500 may be deposited between any two interest dates. No ulterior causes can exist that might radically complicate the returns. New York County savings banks are not stock companies. They are controlled by trustees who are paid nothing for their services—who accept their positions as the community's tributes to honesty and ability. Even the salaries of clerks and officials are held down to nominal amounts.

"Have not some of the banks reduced their interest rates?" is a natural suggestion to explain the falling off of deposits. Examination proves, however, that those banks which retained a 4 per cent. rate lost as heavily as those that had come down to $3\frac{1}{2}$. There seems to be no connection between interest reduction and withdrawal of deposits.

Of course, the reason for the sudden commencement of a withdrawal movement on July 1st is to be found in the payments of semiannual interest on that date. Many, probably most, of the depositors who can-

celed or lessened their accounts had intended to do so previous to July 1st, but were not willing to lose their interest. Indeed, several of the presidents remarked that they heard of much borrowing, just before July 1st, on savings-bank "books" as security.

Higher Prices, Lower Deposits

WHY is it, then, that practically every savings institution in the county which contains one fifth of the savings-bank deposits of the United States seemed to have sustained a loss in deposits following July 1st—the only exceptions being banks in new territories which had previously lacked savings facilities entirely?

"Strikes of various kinds are partly responsible for this state of things," suggested John J. Pulleyn, controller of the Emigrant Industrial Savings Bank, "combined with the high prices of foods and other factors of living. Some small amounts of money may have gone into real estate." Real estate men, however, report a dull six months. If it be true that the butcher's bill and the shopping fund and the rent payments have increased in the average family to a point where the savings-bank account cannot be built up but must actually be drawn upon—it is time the nation knew it.

"Out of work" was likewise referred to as a cause for deposit losses by President Quinlan of the Greenwich Savings Bank. President Charles E. Sprague of the Union Dime Savings Bank had diagnosed the cause of withdrawals as the desire of the average citizen to regulate his expenditures according to the income of his neighbor. The nation's extravagance, he believed, had reached that point where men and women fall back upon their last resort—the savings bank—to clean up their indebtedness.

A similar conclusion had been reached by President Felsing of the New York Savings Bank. The payment of old loans and debts, he felt, was the chief factor. He believed, however, that although his depositors had not been earning as much as in 1906 and 1908, they had, after all, been discovering how to live within their means.

That is the cheerful side. In the couple of months past, the number of savings-bank depositors has been growing—even though the sums they pass through the window have, on an average, run smaller. To some degree the last phenomenon is an indirect result of the reductions of interest rates made in some quarters. This has led wealthy people,

who employ savings banks merely as investment brokers, to take their money out and buy bonds—now selling so much lower than last year. As for such folks, however, "their room is more welcome than their company," as any president of such a savings-bank will tell you. His institution is for the encouragement of thrift and frugality, not for the convenience of rich people.

Last month a prominent New York banker remarked that a tremendous "retrenchment" was visible to him; and that if it continued for six months, enough capital would have been saved to last the country several years.

Our Accounts with Europe

ANOTHER test of economizing, even more significant than the flow of money into and out of the savings banks in America, is the flow of corn, wheat, cattle, oil and other American products to Europe, as compared with the inflow of the manufactured goods and the like that Europe sells us.

At a time like 1907, imports into America of things like diamonds and other precious stones, silks and the like, fall off abruptly. Contrariwise, everybody knew, when it was announced a little over a year ago that our imports of precious stones had broken all records, that the country was highly prosperous—or at least thought it was.

It is discouraging, therefore, to find that the imports of merchandise into America this year have been tremendous. The following table compares the total for the ten-month period ending October 31st this year with each of the five years preceding:

1910.....	\$1,296,226,777
1909.....	1,196,267,707
1908.....	900,538,278
1907.....	1,219,984,920
1906.....	1,066,395,469
1905.....	779,717,437

Not only are this year's imports greater, by hundreds of millions, than those in 1905, 1906, or 1908, but they are a hundred millions greater than any of the preceding years except 1907—which was a time of trouble.

Fortunately, American manufacturers have been breaking all records at selling their goods abroad. Our November "merchandise exports" ran up to \$206,000,000—against \$196,000,000 last November, \$161,000,000 the year before, and only \$204,000,000 even in November, 1907.

Moreover, some signs of economizing can be deduced from the following table, which

shows the merchandise imports month by month, reflecting some lessening of American demand for European products since April of this year:

November, 1910.....	\$130,361,388
October.....	123,868,448
September.....	117,260,260
August.....	138,358,358
July.....	117,315,315
June.....	119,876,876
May.....	118,837,837
April.....	133,921,911
March.....	162,999,435
February.....	130,117,980
January.....	133,670,278
December 1909.....	138,744,244
November.....	140,508,773

Beginning with May, apparently, this country began to use less European merchandise.

On the other hand American exports, instead of swelling to meet the added debt to Europe, have actually been less than for many years past.

Take the eleven-month period up to the first of last month. The strength of America, as a trader among the nations, has lain in its exports of "natural resources,"—corn, wheat, flour, meat and dairy products, cattle, cotton and mineral oils. But the ten-year table below, contrasting the eleven-months' figures of such exports with those of the same periods in previous years, show the total this year to be the lowest since 1904:

1910.....	\$697,902,646
1909.....	749,593,246
1908.....	800,509,848
1907.....	841,287,850
1906.....	785,443,214
1905.....	703,569,134
1904.....	647,439,647
1903.....	726,193,738
1902.....	642,057,158
1901.....	779,652,752

And 1904, it will be remembered, was not a pleasant year for American industry.

"Invisible" Debts

WHY do the financial writers warn so solemnly of "our growing debt to Europe," when the figures show that our exports thither nearly always exceed our imports thence?

The catch in this international affair has disgusted a great many people with the whole science of applied economics. Yet it is entirely simple.

The United States trades with Europe. Whichever is ahead is said to have the "balance of trade." But no country as new as this can finance itself. Consequently we

have run up a total of borrowings from Europe which now amounts to billions of dollars. We must pay interest on that every year, with some principal. Such payments, together with freight charges to foreign shipowners, the insurance premiums to foreign insurance companies, the sums sent by European immigrants back home, and the sums spent by Americans who go touring abroad, add up to an imposing total per year. It is an "invisible" balance. And it always sets against America.

For it must be remembered that, financially speaking, there are only two kinds of nations: lenders of capital, and borrowers (a few, like Tibet, are thrown out of the record entirely as being of no economic importance).

Most of the lending nations are ancient European countries. Time has allowed their riches to accumulate. Great Britain has loaned some \$15,000,000,000 to younger sisters; France and Germany about \$8,000,000,000; and Holland, Belgium and Switzerland, although smaller in area, have made tremendous advances to "foreigners."

With the comparatively infant nations,—Australia, British India, the Argentines, Brazil, Chile and Mexico—and with those exceptions among the older sisters, such as Japan and China, which are in process of reconstruction—the United States must be grouped.

An Authoritative Estimate

IN the files of this department there have reposed for some time various calculations, some bearing more or less eminent financial sanction, of "our debt to Europe." But the estimates varied by amounts of one to five hundred million dollars. It was necessary, though unsatisfactory, to add all the calculations together and divide them by the number of calculators. Last month, however, figures were completed on this subject for the National Monetary Commissions' important documentary series by George Paish, editor of the London *Statist* and an economist of international note. Mr. Paish's work has been distinguished particularly by its careful balance. His figures are particularly interesting at this time of our disappointingly small excess of exports over imports.

First comes the interest on money borrowed from European investors. This amounts to no less than \$300,000,000 a year, Mr. Paish figures, being nearly 5 per cent. on the six and one-half billion dollars of European money we have invited to these shores.

An offsetting item is the billion and a half

which Americans have invested in other countries. But there is still left a net yearly "invisible" indebtedness of America to Europe of some \$225,000,000.

Next are the tourists. Mr. Paish figures that Americans abroad spend, over and above what American residents can extract from foreign visitors, the amount of \$170,000,000.

Then immigrants to America either send back or take back with them perhaps \$150,000,000 yearly more than they bring in (through postal money orders alone, there was sent abroad last year by residents of the United States \$90,000,000).

The final big item is for ocean freight. America possesses no shipping, speaking in international terms. Adding the \$25,000,000 charged by foreign ship-owners to the bills of foreign insurance companies, the commissions of European bankers who underwrite American securities, and the fees of various kinds, and including the three main items first mentioned, a grand total of nearly \$600,000,000 is estimated as the yearly debt of the United States to Europe which is "invisible," but very real indeed.

Good Reasons for Borrowing

BY no means must it be diagnosed as a disaster whenever the American excess of exports over imports fails to equal, in a single year, less than \$600,000,000. It is true that such a failure would mean an addition to our already enormous debt to Europe. But it is equally true that sometimes a new country, like a new enterprise, does better by increasing its borrowings.

For instance, it is estimated that the increase in the annual production of American wealth has averaged *twenty times* the amount paid to foreigners for capital.

These columns last month showed that nearly one third of the railways of the United States have been built with foreign capital. But by just so much have American citizens been able to devote their own savings to building dwellings, to equipping factories, to fitting out retail establishments, [to improving public grounds, parks and roads—in general, to "home furnishing."

The caution must be that an increase of borrowing should never be more than temporary. As shown last month, the pitifully small American trade balance this year had left us \$365,000,000 behind the payment of our invisible debts "according to the lowest estimate" (which was \$150,000,000 less than that of Mr. Paish, since announced).

If the balance does not turn more strongly in our favor within a very few months, and does not maintain the increase, one of two things will have to occur; either American prices must be cut down so as to attract foreign buyers, or else this country must go into a period of depression and of slackened enterprise.

Railroad Ups and Downs

SOME anxiety was evident last month in most "market letters" of brokers, and in letters from some business investors, concerning the state of railroad earnings. Here was the Pennsylvania showing nearly \$200,000 less for October than last year. That loss, too, was in "gross" earnings. Before these figures came out, no great Eastern system had failed to record figures of gross earnings, month by month, larger than for the corresponding months of last year.

Other prominent railroads whose October "gross" showed a decrease are the St. Paul and the Southern Pacific. Many others showed big decreases in "net," as they had been doing for some time past.

Charges have been widely made that railroads are trying to put their worst foot foremost, to make themselves appear as poor as possible, in aid of their plea for higher freight rates.

There is indeed some flexibility in the railroad accountant's handling of operating expenses. For instance, he can make a whopping big item for "this month" out of those old engines relegated to the scrap heap—or he can put that item off until "next month" if the officials think it will look better then.

To manipulate the total of gross earnings is not such a simple matter. Indeed, plenty of people believe it is not attempted at all on our standard systems.

It may be, as so many people felt last month, that the reduction in gross earnings of railroads are prophecies of some reduction in dividends. That is not the whole story. As pointed out in these columns for September, 1910, there is a curious counterbalance between the figures in railroad gross earnings and the prices of railroad stocks. When the former begin to go down, the latter usually start to go up. Nor is this another example of Wall Street deception. It is simply the financial community's expression of this ancient truth: "when the worst is known, men prepare for something better."

NOTEWORTHY FICTION OF THE SEASON

THE history of twentieth century fiction is likely to record great or even unsurpassed achievement in psychological portraiture. This corresponds with an asserted prerogative of untrammelled laxity in narration which is quite modern. More briefly: we may expect characters to be well described and stories badly told. Without expounding the literary influences and developments which concern these two things, the critic might point to a certain novel appearing in 1904 that exemplified both fine psychology and inferior construction—"The Divine Fire," the first work of May Sinclair. Of her latest novel, "The Creators" (Century), the same comment could be made with equal justice. As to the subject of "The Creators," it might be conveyed in the form of the query: "What effect have love and marriage upon authorship?" Miss Sinclair, well studied in the complexities of psychic machinery, answers, "That Depends." In one case an enamored couple write better than ever after they are united. Then, we have a novelist led by caprice to take a girl from a lower class to wife. In six months he tires of her, and his literary production continues as though he had stayed unmated. Another, a very sentimental girl, remains unwed. Her muse, however, chants most melodiously at the times when she is least in love. Still another writer marries an editor, ambitious, practical, and devoted to his spouse, whose ecstatic felicity becomes clouded with the realization of its cost: the waning power to create.

FOUR REMARKABLE NOVELS

Arnold Bennett's extraordinary novel "Clayhanger" (Dutton) seems to reject the necessity for the formal structure or logical evolution demanded by the "Rules and By-Laws for the Perfect Novelist." Like life itself the story rambles and rushes, and stumbles and shambles, containing all sorts of startling events with little consequence and some trivialities that engender portentous transactions. This seven-hundred-page volume, in fact, constitutes a sort of biography, which, with two related volumes to follow, promises to reach dimensions rivaling "Clarissa Harlowe." Edwin Clayhanger

is the son and employee of a hidebound, priggish old Briton who owns a provincial printing and stationery shop, and who resents every sign of progress—especially on the part of his offspring. Therefore, when Edwin requests larger pay than a pound a week, to enable him to marry, he receives

the indignant answer: "Let me tell you that in my time young men married on a pound a week, and glad to!" Blest with such a papa, and brought up in traditions of "stand-pat" stolidity, Edwin's mental career could not be swift. Hence one justification, at least, for so bulky an account. But the pleasure derivable from Mr. Bennett's excellent description of people, places, and episodes, his inclusive comprehension of human nature, his charming sympathy for youth, and an enlivening current of ironic humor which ripples smilingly through the whole—the enjoyment thus to be obtained renders "Clayhanger" very alluring of perusal.

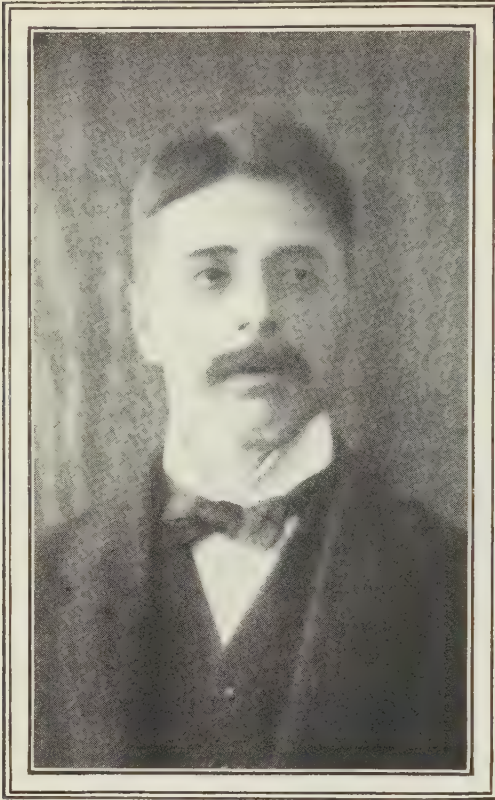
Horribly repellent, by contrast, looms the hideous "House of Bondage" (Moffat). Mr. R. W. Kaufmann's skilful and strong analysis of the white slave abomination is in the main authentic as well as plausible. Although, intent upon drawing a dark picture he occasionally exaggerates, his narrative method is admirable, since he permits himself no irrelevancies, but makes each personage and incident somehow converge upon the central point of

interest. And this, he makes it plain, is not national but universal. His scenic selection of New York enables him to show how politicians and magistrates, lawyers and policemen contrive to enrich themselves through criminal affiliations with the sinister "business." He mentions Tammany Hall by name. The statement may seem paradoxical that "The House of Bondage" embodies too much accurate information to be supremely effective. "Uncle Tom's Cabin," a superficial, artificial presentment, was full of emotion; the careful "House of Bondage" is merely full of facts that can be proven. Nevertheless, Mr. Kaufmann has written a powerful and important book, deserving extensive circulation.

"Five o'clock by the sundial on the lawn, and the man that had to fight the duel at seven was sound



MISS MAY SINCLAIR
(Whose latest novel, "The Creators," is noticed
on this page)



ARNOLD BENNETT
(Author of "Clayhanger")

asleep and dreaming." Who so unlikely thus to begin a tale as the author of "Alice-For-Short" and "Somehow Good"? Yet William de Morgan's "An Affair of Dishonor" (Holt) tells not alone of that, but another duel, of a bold abduction, an heroic rescue from drowning, and a grand, blazing cannonade between British ships and Dutch. Such are the active matters in hand in de Morgan's new novel of Restoration days, penned with a beauty of language to make you glad that you can read English.

One of the most remarkable psychological studies of recent years in the form of fiction is the ten-volume novel depicting the soul development of a great but anonymous German musician. The subject of this monumental work—Jean Christophe born of humble parents in a little German town, passes through almost every conceivable human experience during a long life in two countries, Germany and France. The first four volumes of the original French known respectively as Dawn, Morning, Youth and Revolt, have been published as one work in the English translation by Gilbert Cannan (Holt). The author, M. Romain Rolland, a new figure in French fiction, is a musical critic who has "a passion for artistic truth." This is the great trial of Jean-Christophe. It is his law. He must tell the truth and have the truth at all costs, in spite of himself, in spite of the world, in spite of life, because he must "answer to the unswerving judgment of his own soul." Jean-Christophe is everywhere "hurled against compromise and untruth, individual and national." The whole series

is a story of the adventures and experiences of the soul of the hero, and of course, in greater or less degree, those of every other human being "who passes through this life from the tyranny of the past to the service of the future." Absolute, courageous fidelity to truth, patient, psychological analysis, with a startling keenness and abounding vitality in every character; these are the qualities that stand out in "Jean-Christophe," which Mr. Edmund Gosse the English critic, has called the noblest work of fiction of the twentieth century.

WRITINGS WITH NATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

Two authors already known for singing the waning glories of the wonderful Far West of America join their voices in a duo to which one must give ear. "The Rules of the Game" (Doubleday), by Stewart Edward White, might properly be called the Epic of the Timber, for it tells us in graphic, living circumstance the whole story of the big trees; their majestic forest congregation; the riches that they represent; crafty endeavors criminally to despoil these splendid natural legacies of the nation, and, on the other hand, resolute efforts to conserve them; the frightful fires which sometimes devastate vast areas; the activities of the early pioneer, of the homesteader who succeeded him, and of the underpaid, ill-used, indispensable government ranger; the workings of the Land Office, with its historical connivance at illicit trans-



ROMAIN ROLLAND
(The first four volumes of whose novel "Jean-Christophe" has recently been translated into English)

actions; and then, among still other matters, the actual processes of cutting, milling, driving the giant logs. Truly an epical narration! Mr. White spreads his tale rather evenly over these various phases. Miss Agnes Laut, in the "Freebooters of the Wilderness" (Moffat), concentrates her view upon the violence to man and beast and property perpetrated in the course of robbery on a titanic scale, including also the ravishment of mining lands and grazing tracts. Miss Laut's book has a high dramatic force. It seizes and excites, and it stirs the blood to anger; it has descriptive pages of equal potency, one of the best describing an avalanche. Both volumes are valuably educational.

"The Gold Brick" (Bobbs-Merrill) too is an enlightening book. Here Brand Whitlock continues his good fight on paper—in office he is doing it as Mayor of Toledo—on behalf of getting government of which we need not be ashamed. One welcomes each successive piece of print from such a champion of such a cause, and "The Gold Brick" constitutes a series of realistic political sketches that every American voter ought to read.

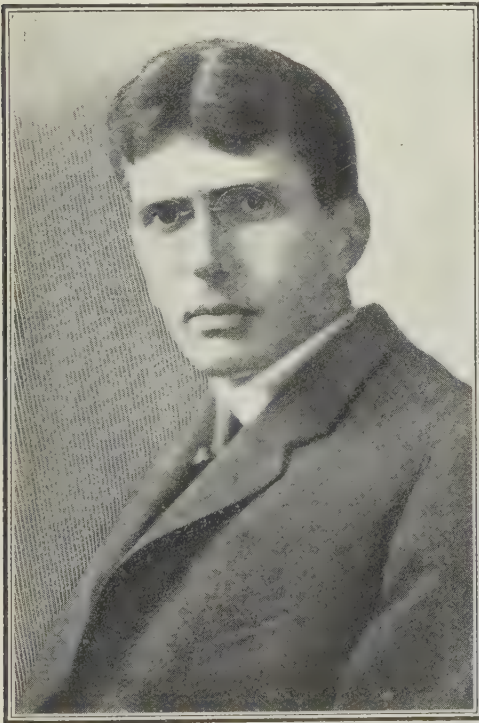
In this country of quick development the new candid spirit of national self-criticism—which some people term "muck-raking"—has grown apace. That it now flourishes should not arouse regret but satisfaction, since the tendency it bespeaks is idealistic. Even when the pessimist complains let us rather listen to him than by refusing shut out a single word of truth which he might

"We American men of the comfortable and luxurious classes are addicted to the habit of regarding our wives and children as toys, as mere sources of amusement not to be taken seriously. We all still look upon education as a frill, an ornament. The American woman is a child in education, a child in experience, a child in taste. He (her husband) prefers her a child. Her childishness rests his tired brain. Nothing she so dearly loves as to hear that she has a great in-



MISS AGNES LAUT

(Who has just brought out a novel of conservation entitled "Freebooters of the Wilderness")



MAYOR BRAND WHITLOCK, OF TOLEDO

(Author of "The Gold Brick")

have to tell. "The Husband's Story" (Appleton), at all events, sets forth some bitter beliefs of David Graham Phillips, stated with unimpeachable sincerity in a novel of unmerciful trenchancy—as for example:

tellect and a great soul, complete, mysterious, beyond the comprehension of the vulgar male clods about her. That's why they like foreigners. You ought to watch those foreign chaps flatter our women—make perfect fools of them. . . . Why stay at home when there is an amiable fool willing to mail them his money, while they amuse themselves gadding about Europe or some big city of America? . . . In America, where the marriage for sentiment prevails to an extent unknown anywhere else in the world, is not the institution of marriage there in its most uneasy state?"

The woman who was supposed to tell the story set forth in "The Confessions of a Successful Wife" (Harpers), which might be read as a sort of antidote for Mr. Phillips' "Husband's Story," belongs to the old-fashioned order. The confessions in question are not concerned with her own ideas, failings, and feelings, but with those of her husband. It is impossible to withhold admiration from the patient, practical heroism of the successful wife, as well as the direct, vivid style of the author of the book—G. Dorset.

Another phase of the same everlasting problem—the new woman and her strained relations with the eternal husband—is presented in Jesse Lynch



DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS

(Whose novel "The Husband's Story" is noted on the preceding page)

Williams' very spirited story "The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls" (Scribner). "Molly," the wife and heroine, makes brave efforts to be an old-fashioned wife, but there is something in the atmosphere that almost wrecks her attempt. This novel very profitably and interestingly begins where most novels leave off, at the threshold of that most complicated and most important phase of life, matrimony. As usual, virtue and the old ideals triumph, and everybody applauds.

SOME EXCELLENT SHORT STORIES

Were one, relative to stories, even as voluptuous a glutton as Lucullus in respect of food, one could here sit down to a banquet fit for the most fastidious palate. One would find the fare no less appetizing than varied. The Scribners alone set out three delectable dishes, compounded by Henry James, Edith Wharton, and Richard Harding Davis, and severally entitled "The Finer Grain," "Tales of Men and Ghosts," and "Once Upon a Time." Henry James, of course, sustains his reputation as a dispenser of subtilized caviare. Waiving gastronomic analogy, one must avow that this writer's labyrinthine style is the expression of a preternaturally observant and complex mind; none but an intelligence of the first class could analyze human motive down to such impalpable atoms. Would it not be difficult to name a single story teller, of any clime or epoch, who in this regard could assert superiority to Henry James?

Mrs. Wharton—in the front rank of the world's

living makers of fiction—owes something to Henry James; like him and all great artists in fiction she possesses, in a preëminent degree, the two capacities: psychic dissection and the power to arouse curiosity. Her talent for the first receives brilliant illustration in "The Blond Beast," the picture of a hypocritical captain of industry who designs to bribe Heaven and befool the press with the sop of pseudo-religious philanthropy. The second she exhibits to perfection in the mysterious tale of "The Eyes." Mr. Davis' collection, too, contains much stimulus to one's speculative sense. Such yarns as "The Spy" and "A Charmed Life" show him the able entertainer he ever has been.

Mystery, and mystery most ingeniously planned, is the keynote of Dr. Weir Mitchell's "Guillotine Club" (Century). The opening story, for instance, relates how a certain man became another, who felt obliged to fight a duel with his own original. Jack London, however, rarely dallies with the esoteric or fantastic; he must march up to us men of "real" flesh and blood, with bulging muscles and rubicund corpuscles. He goes hard at his mark, does brash young California Jack, and gets there straightaway—like a steam piston-rod. His anthology of narrations may be obtained from the Macmillan establishment, where it has been issued under the title of "When God Laughs." A namesake, almost, L. P. Jacks, reveals unusual cleverness at character study in "Mad Shepherds," provided by Holt. Doubleday-Page have Kipling's "Rewards and Fairies" to their credit, likewise a symposium from the pen of O. Henry, called "Whirligigs." The Kipling collection is in the manner of his "Puck of Pook's Hill," partaking of both the mythical and the historical, and permeated with the exquisitely lyrical. O. Henry gives us stories of Latin America, Western North America, and the Metropolis of All America. Others



JESSE LYNCH WILLIAMS

(Mr. Williams is the author of a very spirited story, entitled "The Married Life of the Frederic Carrolls".)

have written as well about the West as he has, or better than he has, but not the famous Bret Harte himself, bard of the Golden Gate and domains adjacent, indited chronicles more unique than O. Henry, master singer of Manhattan. "Whirligigs" will be devoured with zest by every one having tooth for a genuine *ragoût piquant à l'Américaine*.

VARIOUSLY COMMENDABLE

Several more fictional productions merit a few words of comment. But let their virtues only be mentioned; the faults they exhibit are sure to reappear in other novels, not yet published but destined ready for review six months hence.

George Meredith's unfinished "Celt and Saxon" comes from the Scribner press. Some months ago we noted its power and range. Diverging traits of those two races form ingredients also of "Lord Alistair's Rebellion," by Allen Upward, to which Mr. Mitchell Kennerley lends his distinctive and entertaining imprint. The caustic iconoclast who wrote that most original tract, "The New Word," now glitters again in the brilliance of his prismatic intellect. Here is an epigram which would have done honor to a La Rochefoucauld: "Every revelation passes through three stages: first, it is a heresy; next, a commonplace; and last, a superstition." But whosoever cherishes great reverence for accepted ways of thinking will spurn this author. No one would take offense at Meredith Nicholson's farcical foolery named "The Siege of the Seven Suitors" (Houghton), than which nothing more hilarious has recently got into print. A pictorially superb cover, initialed S. H., fixes the eye to the outside of "The Sword Maker" (Stokes), by Robert Barr. Within one meets a successful attempt—an insecure hand would have blundered about between the ridiculous and the vulgar—to project romantic imaginings of the feudal Rhenish Palatinate into twentieth century English. Mr. Barr shows us secular warrior princelings vying with potentates of the church militant here on earth for the acquisition of glory, in its concrete, aureate circular embodiment, to the disadvantage of plain burgher and still plainer serf. Local atmosphere of pure quality pervades Will Harben's "Dixie Hart" (Harper), of which the scene is laid in Georgia, and also Mary Waller's "Flamstead Quarries" (Little, Brown), chiefly concerning the State of Maine. And James Lane Allen, the poetical, philosophical Kentuckian, publishes with the discriminating Macmillan Company a volume of good American literature bearing the seasonable appellation, "The Doctor's Christmas Eve."

"Burning Daylight" (Macmillan), "The King of the Klondike," "The Hero of the Arctic," and "The Thirty-million-dollar Millionaire of the North," is as striking a character as Jack London has ever created. He is a man fashioned out of the golden, frozen North and endowed with a personality in which the powerful and the gentle are strangely blended. The story shows Mr. London's virile style and psychological insight.

Few writers of the strictly modern fiction display such a sharpness of penetration and bitter wisdom of the world as does Frank Danby (Mrs. Julia Frankau). "Let the Roof Fall In" (Appleton), the latest work of this English au-



ALICE BROWN

(Who has won much praise for her new novel, "John Winterbourne's Family")

thor, is a story of English lords, Irish commoners and various other interesting people who live alternately in Britain and Siam. The story is full of sentiment which occasionally becomes sentimentality.

Another story by Ida Wylie, an English woman newer to the ranks of fiction than Frank Danby, is "The Native Born" (Bobbs-Merrill). This is an exciting tale woven around the race question in India, dealing with many important phases of Anglo-Indian and native life.

Maurice Hewlett displays in his latest piece of fiction, "Rest Harrow" (Scribners), the same fresh invention, freedom of thought, and feeling for nature that have characterized his former works.

There is an intimate quality about all the stories of Alice Brown that (as Artemus Ward once put it) will almost justify an incurable case of optimism. In "John Winterbourne's Family" (Houghton-Mifflin) we have another study of social ambitions, intellectual development, and marital complications in New England.



THE NEW BOOKS

TRAVELERS' TALES

BOOKS of travel and the description of countries and peoples near at hand and at the uttermost parts of the earth come from the presses of the publishers all over the world in increasing numbers. Whether the travelers be artists, literary men, students of politics and sociology, or "just tourists," it is surprising how well many of them write and in what excellent manufactured form the publishers bring out their efforts. Take, for example, the two-volume work on "Cathedrals and Cloisters of the Isle de France."¹ This handsomely illustrated work has been written by Elise Whitlock Rose. The pictures are from original photographs by Vida Hunt Francis. History and incident, art criticism and sociology are crowded into these pages.

The latest addition to Mr. Clifton Johnson's entertaining series of "American Highways and Byways" is a volume on "The Highways and Byways of the Rocky Mountains."² This title, however, should not be taken too literally. The book is intended to cover the region lying between the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific Coast. It

¹Cathedrals and Cloisters of the Isle de France. By Elise Whitlock Rose. Putnams. 2 vols., 857 pp., ill. \$5.

²Highways and Byways of the Rocky Mountains. By Clifton Johnson. Macmillan. 279 pp., ill. \$2.



IN DISTRESS AT THE NORTH
(Frontispiece from "The Toll of the Arctic Seas")

takes its name from the dominant physical feature of that area, but of necessity its text deals both with the mountains and with the great agricultural States that lie to the eastward. In all the volumes of this series Mr. Johnson, who is his own illustrator, avoids the larger towns and seeks for the typical and picturesque in rural life. His photographs are frequently unusual and striking, and his text descriptions equally so.

One useful product of the revival of interest in Polar exploration resulting from the Peary achievement is "The Great White North,"³ by Helen S. Wright. This book sums up the whole story of Arctic exploration from the earliest times to the discovery of the Pole. The illustrations include portraits of all the leading explorers, as well as many interesting bits of Arctic scenery.

In "The Toll of the Arctic Seas,"⁴ Mr. Deltus M. Edwards attempts to give a brief, accurate, yet comprehensive account of the price in life, suffering and dollars that has been paid for the conquest of the Far North. These stories "have been gleaned, scrap by scrap, from old accounts of the explorers themselves, from obsolete reports of army and navy inquiries, from private journals and manuscripts, and from such writings of the present-day explorers as were needed to make a complete narrative of the discovery of the North Pole."

One fruit of the anthropological studies that have been conducted in the Philippine archipelago under American auspices is a volume on "The Racial Anatomy of the Philippine Islanders,"⁵ by Dr. Robert Bennett Bean, now of the Tulane University of Louisiana and formerly associate professor of anatomy at the Philippine Medical School in Manila. This book embodies the results of three years' investigation of the Filipinos. A method of segregating types is introduced and affords a ready means of comparing different groups of men. The text is accompanied by nineteen illustrations reproduced from original photographs.

"Islam Lands"⁶ is the title of an account of travel in Nubia, the Sudan, Tunisia, and Algeria, by Michael M. Shoemaker. Mr. Shoemaker is an experienced traveler, and in this volume he describes many regions that are remote from the globe-trotters' beaten track.

"Panama and the Canal To-Day"⁷ is a historical account of the canal project with a comprehensive description of the physical features and natural resources of the country, by Forbes Lindsay, author of "Panama, The Isthmus and the Canal." Now that the construction of the canal has entered upon its final stage, this account of the work that has been done and description of the plans upon which it will be finished is especially timely. Mr. Lindsay has obtained the material at first hand or from experts who have carefully investi-

³The Great White North. By Helen S. Wright. Macmillan. 489 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴The Toll of the Arctic Seas. By Deltus M. Edwards. Henry Holt & Company. 449 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁵Racial Anatomy of the Philippine Islanders. By Robert Bennett Bean, M.D. Lippincott. 236 pp., ill. \$2.

⁶Islam Lands. By Michael Myers Shoemaker. Putnams. 251 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁷Panama and the Canal To-Day. By Forbes Lindsay. L. C. Page & Co. 427 pp., ill. \$3.

gated the resources of the isthmus. More than fifty illustrations from recent photographs, and five maps, accompany the text.

*Impressions of Cuba*¹ gathered during ten years' residence on the island are set forth in a volume of 500 pages by Irene A. Wright, who has traveled much through the provinces on work entailed, first, by connections with local newspapers, next by appointment as a special agent of the Cuban department of agriculture, and finally by the business of editing a monthly magazine which describes the island principally from the agricultural and industrial points of view. During and immediately after the Spanish war descriptions of Cuba flooded the market, but within recent years comparatively few works of this character have found publishers.

The present account is brought down to date and contains a great deal of information about the island that is not to be found in earlier works.

"Pages from the Book of Paris"² is the title of a series of racy sketches by Claude C. Washburn, illustrated from etchings and drawings by Lester G. Hornby. The book gives, in word and drawing, the impressions and adventures of these two young Americans—one a writer, the other an artist—each of whom is thoroughly familiar with the city and with the vagaries of its inhabitants. The product is a fascinating interpretation of Parisian life itself, as well as a clever *exposé* of the parody of it which most foreigners see.

And so on through the ever-extending list dealing with travel throughout the civilized and uncivilized world. Besides the more noteworthy volumes already briefly described, mention should be made of the following: Spain, Spaniards, and Spanish things in general come in for some lively and entertaining description in Miss E. Boyle O'Reilly's volume "*Heroic Spain*."³ It is of the heroism in the soul of the Spanish people, rather than of her historic characters, that this author writes. A good deal of interesting information, and many useful pictures, may be found in Mr. R. F. Johnston's "*Lion and Dragon in Northern China*."⁴ Mr. Johnston, who has been for some years a magistrate in Wei-hai-wei, knows whereof he speaks. L. C. Page & Co. have made a very handsome volume of N. O. Winter's "*Brazil and Her People of To-day*."⁵ Customs, characteristics, amusements, and history, with suggestions as to the development of natural resources, are the subjects considered. In "*An Englishman in Ireland*,"⁶ Mr. R. A. Scott-James gives his impressions, by text and picture, of a canoeing trip through the Emerald Isle. Then there is the account of a motor trip in Europe taken by two Americans, A. T. and B. R. Wood, which is given us, with pictures, under the



A BRAZILIAN FRUIT MARKET

(Illustration from N. O. Winter's "*Brazil and Her People To-day*")

general title "*Ribbon Roads*."⁷ Under the rather unusual title, "*The River and I*,"⁸ Mr. John G. Neihardt, who is sometimes known as the "Nebraska poet," tells the story of his descent of the Missouri River in quest of exercise, adventure, and impressions. A perusal of the book convinces one that he got what he sought. "*Florida Trails*,"⁹ by Winthrop Packard, is a handsomely illustrated description of several years' travel in the State at all seasons. A sober book of literary interest is Helen Archibald Clarke's illustrated description of "*Hawthorne's Country*,"¹⁰ dealing with New England and the scenes of his European tour as well.

NEW BOOKS ABOUT THE "DARK CONTINENT"

The rapidity with which the "Dark Continent" is emerging into the light of print is truly remarkable. Steadily the number of books and magazine articles on topics relating to Africa and African conditions increases. We frequently mention in these pages the more noteworthy of these publications. The present book season has been marked by an unusual number. The very important exploring expedition headed by the Duke of Mecklenburg, which thoroughly studied extensive tracts of Central Africa during 1907-08, has found its historian in the Duke himself. "*In the Heart of Africa*,"¹¹ which is the title, correctly describes the expedition and the contents of the book. Duke Adolphus Frederick, of Mecklenburg, who has an enviable reputation as a traveler and a sportsman, on the expedition in question made a systematic investigation of the entire German East African Protectorate, and traversed the entire heart of the continent, including a large portion of the Congo State. The volume is illustrated from photographs taken by the author, some of them reproduced in color.

Two other volumes consider Africa from the viewpoint of the sportsman. Richard Tjader¹² attempts to handle the matter very thoroughly not

¹ Cuba. By Irene A. Wright. Macmillan. 512 pp., ill. \$2.50.

² Pages from the Book of Paris. By Claude C. Washburn and Lester G. Hornby. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 277 pp., ill. \$3.

³ Heroic Spain. By E. Boyle O'Reilly. Duffield. 440 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴ Lion and Dragon in Northern China. By R. F. Johnston. Dutton. 460 pp., ill. \$5.

⁵ Brazil and Her People of To-day. By Nevin O. Winter. L. C. Page & Co. 388 pp., ill. \$3.

⁶ An Englishman in Ireland. By R. Scott-James. Dutton. 264 pp., ill. \$2.

⁷ Ribbon Roads. By A. T. and B. R. Wood. Putnam. 222 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁸ The River and I. By John G. Neihardt. Putnam. 325 pp., ill. \$2.

⁹ Florida Trails. By Winthrop Packard. Small, Maynard & Co. 300 pp., ill. \$3.

¹⁰ Hawthorne's Country. By Helen A. Clarke. Baker & Taylor Company. 348 pp., ill. \$2.50.

¹¹ In the Heart of Africa. By Adolphus Frederick, Duke of Mecklenburg. Cassell & Co. 295 pp., ill. \$5.

¹² The Big Game of Africa. By Richard Tjader. Appletons. 364 pp., ill. \$3.

only giving his own experiences but drawing from the experiences of others and in making copious suggestions to the would-be African big-game hunter as to the selection of the outfit for the trip,



BARONESS BERTHA VON SUTTNER
(Who has just brought out her "Memoirs")

as to the linguistic equipment he will need, and in general providing material usually found in a high-class illustrated guide-book. In "Uganda for a Holiday,"¹ Sir Frederick Treves, who was one of the surgeons attached to the personal household of the late King Edward of England, endeavors to "be of some service to the unspecialized traveler who wants to go somewhere and who might profitably go to Uganda." This book is also copiously illustrated.

Mr. Edgar Allen Forbes has fairly packed with information his travel book which he has entitled "The Land of the White Helmet"² and subtitled "Lights and Shadows Across Africa." Mr. Forbes, who has been for some years managing editor of the *World's Work*, has tried to see the African of to-day with American eyes and to tell the story thereof without fear or favor of any man. The pictures are from photographs taken by the author and are very varied in subject.

The subject is very appropriately rounded off by a mention of Mr. John T. McCutcheon's humorous story of his hunting adventures in Africa.³ Mr. McCutcheon is known far and wide as the cartoonist of the *Chicago Tribune*. In his book, which is copiously illustrated from photographs and a number of mirth-provoking sketches, he tells us he has merely attempted to "relate the experiences of a self-confessed amateur," to the "accompaniment of some mildly stimulating pictures."

¹ Uganda for a Holiday. By Sir Frederick Treves. Dutton. 233 pp., ill. \$2.50.

² The Land of the White Helmet. By Edgar Allen Forbes. Revell. 356 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ In Africa. By John T. McCutcheon. Bobbs-Merrill Company. 402 pp., ill. \$3.

BIOGRAPHY

It has not been permitted to many women to exert so widespread, intelligent and effective influence toward general peace between nations, as that which is already to the credit of the Austrian authoress and philanthropist, Baroness Bertha von Suttner. Four years ago this lady received world-wide recognition for the vigor and effectiveness of her book "Lay Down Your Arms"—"Die Waffen Nieder." Two years later Baroness von Suttner received the Nobel prize for peace. In her recently published memoirs, which have just appeared in two volumes with the subtitle: "Records of an Eventful Life,"⁴ Baroness von Suttner gives an absorbingly interesting account of her work for "international fraternization." "Lay Down Your Arms" has been called the Uncle Tom's Cabin of the peace movement.

A comprehensive study of that remarkable woman, the late Empress Dowager of China, Tzu Hsi,⁵ by J. O. P. Bland and E. Backhouse, comes to us from London, imported by the Lippincotts. This is a history, very graphically told, of the life and times of the shrewd old Chinese Empress, compiled from state papers and the private diary of her chamberlain.

⁴ Memoirs of Bertha von Suttner. By Baroness Bertha von Suttner. Ginn & Co. 2 vols. 891 pp. \$5.50.

⁵ China Under the Empress Dowager. By J. O. P. Bland and E. Backhouse. Lippincott. 525 pp., ill. \$4.



THE DUKE OF MECKLENBERG WITH A PAIR OF
ELEPHANT TUSKS THAT SHOW HIS
PROWESS AS A HUNTER

(See page 123)

Of the making of books on the great Napoleon there is apparently no end. The subject is approached from a new angle in the autobiography of the great emperor which has been recently issued under the title "The Corsican."¹ It is the diary of Napoleon, which has been compiled and translated by R. M. Johnson. The entire book is made up of Napoleon's own words, with the exception of a few bracketed passages which the editor has thought necessary. The volume is one of unusual biographical and psychological interest, since it contains the frank and vivid opinions of one of the most extraordinary of men on his military campaigns and the public affairs of his country, as well as the more intimate details of his domestic life and even his thoughts and moods. Another biographical work—with a more limited range, however—is "Napoleon in His Own Defense."² This is a compilation of notes and correspondence, together with an essay on Napoleon as a man of letters, by Clement Shorter. Finally we note a new library edition, in four volumes, of Prof. William M. Sloane's "Life of Napoleon Bonaparte."³

Lord Rosebery's biography of Chatham,⁴ which is very full and painstaking in its treatment, pictures the comparatively obscure period of the youth of the great William Pitt. The volume ends with the great Englishman's accession to the nominal secretaryship of state and the virtual position of premier in 1756. Lord Rosebery has made most interesting use of a large number of letters,



CAGLIOSTRO

hitherto unpublished, of a personal and confidential nature.

The latest work on Balzac,⁵ by Frederick Lawton, contains virtually all that is known of the life

¹ *The Corsican*. By Napoleon Bonaparte. Houghton-Mifflin Company. 526 pp. \$1.75.

² *Napoleon in His Own Defense*. By Clement Shorter. Cassell & Co. 284 pp., ill. \$4.

³ *The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte*. By William M. Sloane. Century. 4 vols., ill. \$10.

⁴ *Lord Chatham: His Early Life and Connections*. By Lord Rosebery. Harpers. 481 pp., ill. \$3.

⁵ *Balzac*. By Frederick Lawton. Wessels & Bissell Company. 388 pp., ill. \$4.



MADAME HANSKA AFTER HER MARRIAGE WITH
BALZAC

(From the painting by Gigoux)

of the author of the "Comédie Humaine," with a number of pictures some of them rare—that very well illustrate the text.

Cagliostro is a mere name to most of us. What he was, what he saw, and what he did to make magic, hypnotism, and free-masonry known to the world,—in short, as the subtitle has it, "The Splendor and Misery of a Master of Magic,"—are set forth in W. R. H. Trowbridge's volume of biography.⁶ This volume is copiously illustrated.

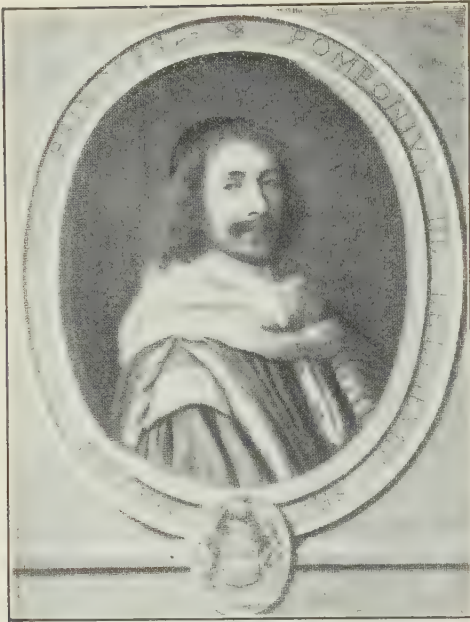
Other biographical studies of more restricted historical and literary interest are: "The Japanese Letters of Lafcadio Hearn," edited by Elizabeth Bisland (Houghton-Mifflin); "The Winter Queen,"—Elizabeth of Bohemia,—by Marie Hay (Houghton-Mifflin); "Dante Alighieri," by Paget Toynbee (Macmillan); "Mazzini and Other Essays," by Henry Demarest Lloyd (Putnam); and "Heroes of California," by George Wharton James (Little, Brown).

PAINTING, ENGRAVING, AND MUSIC

Mr. John C. Van Dyke has given us another helpful book on art. This latest volume, entitled "What Is Art?"⁷ is likely to become as indispensable to students as his former invaluable work, "How to Judge a Picture." His intention, as stated in the preface, is to present an argument for "art as an expression of life." This he has

⁶ *Cagliostro*. By W. R. H. Trowbridge. Dutton. 312 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁷ *What Is Art?* By John C. Van Dyke. Scribners. 154 pp. \$1.



PORTRAIT OF POMPONE DE BELLIEVRE

(Frederick Keppel, in his book "The Golden Age of Engraving" says this is, "in the opinion of connoisseurs, the most beautiful portrait in all line engraving.")

done most admirably in the six chapters of the book, viz: "What Is Art?" "The Use of the Model," "Quality in Art," "Art History," "Art Criticism," and "Art Appreciation." These chapters are summarized neatly in a table of contents. This summary enables one to turn to any particular subject or criticism without trouble. Mr. Van Dyke holds that art is a race quality that filters through the materialism of every age in forms of beauty. He maintains that the picture lies not in the subject so much as in the point of view; that art is the portraying of an exquisite mood, not the mere delineation of the subject in hand. To overcome our skepticism he points out Corot's atmosphere of perpetual twilight and Monet's and Turner's sunlight, all of which existed not so much in nature as in the mood of the artists. He deprecates the value of much generally accepted art history and sheds a new light upon art criticism. Original American art, free from any servility to foreign influence, receives his generous praise and appreciation. He has the hardihood to think the modern skyscraper possessed of a distinct artistic value. Mr. Van Dyke's books are perhaps the most useful books on art both for the sophisticated and the unsophisticated. As literary art they are stimulating and charming.

It is not often that we are permitted to get an intimate knowledge of the development of a painter's career, particularly as frankly and fully revealed by himself, as we have in Will H. Low's "A Painter's Progress."¹ This volume, finely illustrated, is made up of the lectures delivered by Mr. Low last spring before the Art Institute of Chicago. They give, he tells us, only a "partial survey along the pathway of art in America and Europe, with sundry examples and precepts culled from personal encounter with existing conditions

¹ A Painter's Progress. By Will H. Low. Scribners. 300 pp., ill. \$1.50.

and reference to the careers of many artists, both ancient and modern."

Mr. Frederick Keppel, an eminent authority on all the graphic arts, particularly engraving, in confessing to his sixty-five years, observes in his fascinating volume, "The Golden Age of Engraving,"² that since he is in the Indian summer of "anec-dotage," which supervenes before real dotage, he will endeavor to illumine and freshen his story of engraving through the ages by as many illustrations of our common human nature and as many entertaining stories as possible. This he has done in the very handsomely manufactured volume already mentioned, to the accompaniment of some very fine illustrations. Engravers ancient and modern, their experiences and their contributions to the progress of the art, are absorbingly described and set in their proper niche. An excellent bibliography completes the volume.

The "mystery of musical emotion" is the subject of a clearly put, fascinatingly constructed volume by Albert Gehring, entitled "The Basis of Musical Pleasure,"³ a title which is elaborated further as being supplemented by "A Consideration of the Opera Problem and the Expression of Emotions in Music."

The "Correct Principles of Classical Singing,"⁴ by Max Heinrich, so long an undisputed authority in American as well as European vocal culture, must of necessity contain a good deal of valuable information. There are chapters in this book on "Choosing a Teacher," "The Art of Singing," and "Oratorio Singing."

NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY

Gen. Morris Schaff's account of the Battle of the Wilderness,⁵ while written by a military man with strictly military fidelity to details, has little of the flavor of an official report. The author was a young West Point graduate of twenty-four at the time when the battle took place, and in his story of what he saw he makes no attempt to conceal his personal impressions as he now recalls them, but on the contrary gives a simple, vividly human account of all that he saw and felt. He confesses that the purely military features of the battle impressed him less than the spirit of the combatants. As a piece of literary description General Schaff's book has not had its equal recently among the various volumes of Civil War recollections.

A fifth edition of Mr. Rossiter Johnson's "History of the War of Secession"⁶ has been called for, and this work (written many years after the close of the conflict) seems to have been accepted as a fairly impartial answer to the questions, How did it happen that the war took place at all? What was its general course? and What were the motive forces that brought it on, prolonged it, and finished it? It was to answer these questions, rather than to offer minute studies of separate campaigns and engagements of the war, that the author prepared this compact and serviceable history.

Col. William H. Crook, who was bodyguard to President Lincoln and later served at the White House during the administrations of Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur, has written

² The Golden Age of Engraving. By Frederick Keppel. Baker & Taylor Company. 314 pp., ill. \$3.50.

³ The Basis of Musical Pleasure. By Albert Gehring. Putnam. 196 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Correct Principles of Classical Singing. By Max Heinrich. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard. 155 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ The Battle of the Wilderness. By Morris Schaff. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 345 pp. \$2.

⁶ A History of the War of Secession. By Rossiter Johnson. New York: Wessels & Bissell Company. 574 pp. \$2.

a book of reminiscences called "Through Five Administrations."¹ Colonel Crook gives in this book many details of Lincoln's life at the White House and relates a number of new anecdotes bearing thereon. In the same way he deals with the administrations of Lincoln's successors. His account has a certain value as an inside view of episodes of national importance.

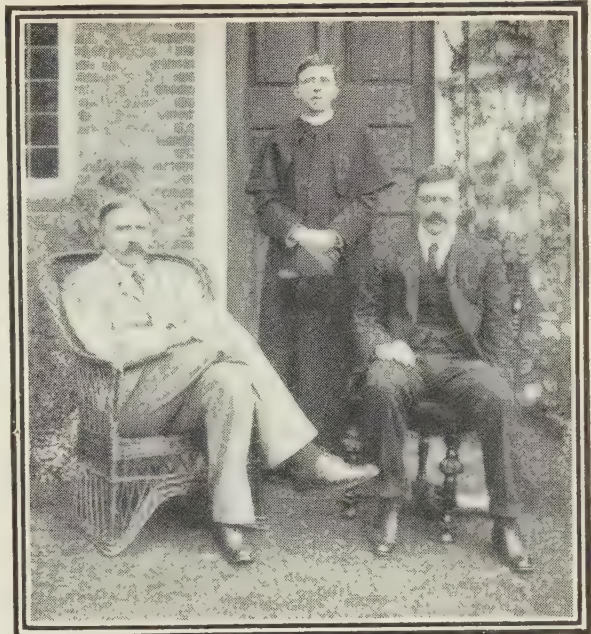
The seventh, eighth, and ninth volumes of the "Documentary History of American Industrial Society"² deal with the labor movement during the years 1840-1880. Prof. John R. Commons, who has selected and edited the material for these volumes, has brought to light many little-known facts regarding the relations of the labor movement to political organizations during the '40's and '50's of the last century. Especially interesting are the documents tending to show the important part played by agitators for land reform in the early days of the Republican party.

Mr. William B. Weeden, author of the "Economic and Social History of New England," has written "Early Rhode Island: A Social History of the People."³ Mr. Wheeden has drawn on the old records, both in print and in manuscript, to show what were the early ways of living in the society developed on Narragansett Bay. Heretofore a great part of what has been written about early Rhode Island has had to do almost exclusively with theological controversies and the beginnings of political organization. Mr. Wheeden tells us more about the social side of the people and how in comparative isolation they built up a new civilization.

In a series of imaginary portraits, or intimate and graphic studies, of the highborn culture woman of all times and nations, Emily James Putnam considers "The Lady"⁴ at certain significant crises of her history. Education, domestic and social life, duties, occupations and pleasures, matrimonial relations, and her general position with regard to the affairs of the great world, are all considered, beginning with the Greek lady and ending with her sister of the twentieth century. The volume is illustrated.

The historical story "Sicily in Shadow and in Sun"⁵ told in modern language, and for the most part, through the words of a traveler who visited the island after the disastrous earthquake has been written by Maud Howe, with numerous illustrations including pictures from photographs. The story of the American relief work after the earthquake is picturesquely told.

In "Echoes from Edinburgh, 1910,"⁶ Mr. W. H. T. Gairdner has given a popular account of the World Missionary Conference held in the Scottish capital last summer. There is an introduction by



Mr. A. C. Benson Father Robert H. Benson Mr. E. F. Benson
THREE LITERARY BROTHERS; THE SONS OF ARCHBISHOP
BENSON
(*"The Silent Isle,"* by Mr. A. C. Benson, is noticed herewith)

John R. Mott and a striking picture of the conference in session.

LITERATURE

"The Silent Isle"⁷ is a volume of delightful essays by Arthur Christopher Benson. Its subject matter is somewhat reminiscent of an earlier collection entitled "From a College Window," issued by Mr. Benson in 1906. All of the writings of this author—he has given us a half-dozen volumes within as many years—have a decided biographical trend. Taken as a whole they might be grouped under one general title of "memoirs." Each succeeding volume portrays more definitely the inner life of a man whose richness of personality is tempered and guided by an almost ascetic ideal of personal conduct. "The Silent Isle" is a book for the quiet hour of the day. When we have closed the door on the clamor of life, it leads on to a "garden of refreshment which the pilgrim may enter by the way." From the author's record of his own personal experience, he departs like a pious palmer on a pilgrimage to many shrines. He writes of art, of life and literature, of men and women with a naïve simplicity expressed in poetic prose. He is in earnest, even when he meanders delicately around his subject, but his meaning is often veiled in a haze of emotional fancy. Although he would arm us with high courage and point the way to spiritual dominion, his desire for salvation is mainly the desire for the salvation of his own soul, a Tolstoyan doctrine of personal perfection. Mr. Benson is at his best when he writes of nature and beauty. This is shown clearly in his exquisite paragraphs on the "spirit of art" and the chapters on Keats. There is a tang of Hazlitt in many of his descriptive

¹ Through Five Administrations: Reminiscences of Col. William H. Crook. Compiled and edited by Margarita Spalding Gerry. Harpers. 280 pp., ill. \$1.80.

² Documentary History of American Industrial Society, Vols. VII., VIII., and IX. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company. \$5 each.

³ Early Rhode Island. By William B. Weeden. Grafton Press. 381 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁴ The Lady. By Emily James Putnam. Sturgis & Walton Company. 323 pp., ill. \$4.

⁵ Sicily in Shadow and in Sun. By Maud Howe. Little, Brown & Company. 490 pp., ill. \$3.

⁶ Echoes from Edinburgh, 1910. By W. H. T. Gairdner. Revell. 281 pp., ill. \$1.

⁷ The Silent Isle. By Arthur Christopher Benson. Putnam's. 448 pp. \$1.50.



MRS. EMERSON

(From a daguerreotype about 1847, appearing now in "Emerson's Journals")

passages, although he has little of the brilliancy of phrasing possessed by that essayist. Mr. Benson does not attempt, however, to make all knowledge his province. He is more or less to our taste in so far as we are capable of appreciating, to use his own expression, the "subtle flavors of life."

Among scholarly works on purely literary subjects, two new volumes of the "Cambridge History of English Literature"¹ take first place. We have had occasion from time to time, as the volumes of this monumental work have appeared, to refer appreciatively to its scholarship and general usefulness. Volumes V. and VI. have recently appeared. Both of these are devoted to the drama and are subtitled parts 1 and 2. Part 1 treats of the drama to 1642; Part 2, the Elizabethan and Jacobean drama. As in volumes already issued, each subject and division is the work of a writer generally accepted as an authority.

A year or so ago this magazine noted the appearance of the first two volumes of Emerson's "Journals,"² bringing the correspondence down to the year 1833. Two other volumes have now been issued, covering dates from 1833 to 1838. The first of these two (Volume III. of the entire series) gives the log of the philosopher's European tour,

beginning in 1833, and tells humorously of his experiences with the great men and women he met. It also deals with the time of his marriage. Volume IV. is full of "thoughts rather than events."

It would appear that William D. Howells had taken the earth for his possession. Apparently there are few persons or things or subjects that he has not already considered in his all-inclusive literary philosophy. This is simply preliminary to saying that Mr. Howells' name appears on another book of essays and observations on life in general, this time under the title "Imaginary Interviews."³

The rather ambitious effort of the Neale Publishing Company to bring out the collected works of Ambrose Bierce⁴ is to be completed in ten volumes. It has been said that "Bierce always radiates brilliancy." The publishers have brought out the first three volumes in appropriate mechanical form.

We have now for the first time the collection of all the poems of Eugene Field complete in one volume.⁵ Field is so firmly established in the affections of the American reading public that it is rather surprising no standard edition of his verses has been issued up to the present time. The volume here noted seems to be satisfactory in every respect.

Especially noteworthy of mention is Mr. Sidney Lee's account of the literary relations between England and France in the sixteenth century, which he has brought out under the title "The French Renaissance in England."⁶

The quota of books on Shakespeareana includes: "An Introduction to Shakespeare," by three members of the Yale faculty—H. N. MacCracken, F. E. Pierce, and W. H. Durham (Macmillan); "The Tragedy of Hamlet," by Henry Frank (Sherman, French & Co.); "Stories from Shakespeare," by Thomas Carter (Crowell & Co.); and "Bacon Is Shakespeare," by Edwin Durning-Lawrence (John McBride Company).

AN INDISPENSABLE INDEX

Too few readers are familiar with the valuable index to current periodicals known as the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature."⁷ The current cumulation, covering the years 1905-1909, is not only an index to ninety-nine distinct periodicals; it also includes in the same alphabet an index to 430 books, reports, collections of essays, and travel sketches—in other words, composite books, or books whose contents are frequently not clearly indicated by their titles. The present volume of the "Readers' Guide" consists of 2500 pages, closely printed, and is by far the most complete summary of the kind ever made.

¹ The Collected Works of Ambrose Bierce, Vols. I., II., and III. Neale Publishing Company. 1229 pp., \$2.50 per volume.

² The Poems of Eugene Field. Scribners. 553 pp. \$2.

³ The French Renaissance in England. By Sidney Lee. Scribners. 494 pp. \$2.50.

⁴ Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature. Edited by Anna Lorraine Guthrie. Minneapolis: H. W. Wilson Company. 2500 pp. \$24.

¹ The Cambridge History of English Literature. Vols. V. and VI. Edited by A. W. Ward and A. R. Walter. Putnam. 1151 pp. \$2.50 per volume.

² Emerson's Journals. Vols. III. and IV. Houghton-Mifflin Company. 1071 pp. \$1.75 per volume.

³ Imaginary Interviews. By William Dean Howells. Harpers. 359 pp., ill. \$2.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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PRESIDENT-ELECT VINCENT, OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

(Dr. George Edgar Vincent, dean of the Faculties of Arts, Literature, and Science in the University of Chicago, and president of the Chautauqua Institution, has been chosen president of the University of Minnesota, to succeed Dr. Cyrus Northrup, who resigned two years ago, after he had been president for more than twenty-five years. Dr. Vincent is a son of Bishop John H. Vincent, the founder of Chautauqua, and has himself been identified with the work of that institution almost from its beginnings. He has also had an important part in the development of the Chicago University since that institution was opened. As its dean he has shown unusual talent for administration. The University of Minnesota, whose head he now becomes, is regarded as the richest of all State universities. In the public lands which were set apart for it many years ago there have been discovered great quantities of iron ore. It has been estimated that the university fund, by natural growth, will exceed \$250,000,000 fifty years hence. The university is in every sense a State institution, for the people of the State are behind it and are supporting it generously)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XLIII

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY, 1911

No. 2

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Senators
by
Popular Vote*

Many years ago, but for the obstructive attitude of the Senate itself, the country would have adopted the plan of electing United States Senators by popular vote. If this had been done, some painful scandals would have been avoided; the United States Senate would have been a body of higher average mentality and moral character; the State legislatures would have been relieved of a function for which everybody now knows that they are unfitted in the very nature of the case. There is prospect that this long-delayed reform may soon be accomplished. The Democrats in their national platforms have declared for the popular election of Senators, and the Republican masses in every State of the Union are in favor of the change. The Constitution declares that the "Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators for each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote." The prescribed method of amending the Constitution is by vote of Congress and ratification in the States. A proposed amendment must have a two-thirds affirmative vote of each house of Congress, and must be ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the States. The States are quite ready to ratify in the case of an amendment providing for the popular election of Senators.

*The
Borah
Report*

The only difficulty has been to persuade the Senate itself to give the States an opportunity to express their preference on the subject. On January 9, the Senate Committee on Judiciary voted in favor of reporting the amendment favorably to the full Senate. The decision was reached by a vote of 10 to 2. The two objectors were Senators Depew of New York and Dillingham of Vermont. It is fair to explain, on behalf of Senator Depew, that

his objection was urged, not on the main point of the amendment, but on its exact phrasing. Since the Senators, when elected, are officials not of the States but of the United States, Mr. Depew thinks that the Constitutional provision authorizing popular choice should reserve to Congress the right to prescribe certain conditions governing the election. The amendment as pending leaves the details to the States. Southern Senators have regarded Mr. Depew's suggestions as in conflict with their present laws restricting the suffrage. It is the commonly accepted view that the voters in the States who elect the legislatures should vote directly for United States Senators. The resolution was reported on January 11, by Senator Borah, of Idaho. The committee presented an elaborate array of



ELECTING A UNITED STATES SENATOR
(Boss Murphy on the job)—The World (New York)



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SENATOR WILLIAM E. BORAH, OF IDAHO

(Who has had the honor to report from the Committee on Judiciary, for the first time in all the years during which such bills have been pending, a resolution providing for an amendment to the Constitution prescribing the direct popular election of Senators)

facts and arguments in its report, showing conclusively the reasons for a change in the method of electing Senators. Opponents of the change, like Senator Hale, of Maine, and Senator Heyburn, of Idaho, were energetic in trying to find ways to prevent the fixing of a time for a vote. But the subject is one that has now for years been thoroughly studied and discussed by the whole country, and there is no reason for further delay. Senator Borah will have been justified in forcing the matter to a vote at this session, throwing the responsibility for a possible extra session where it must clearly belong, upon an obstructive and mischievous minority. For it is well known that more than the requisite

two-thirds of the Senate favor the resolution and are prepared to vote upon it.

*Lorimer
as an
Object-Lesson*

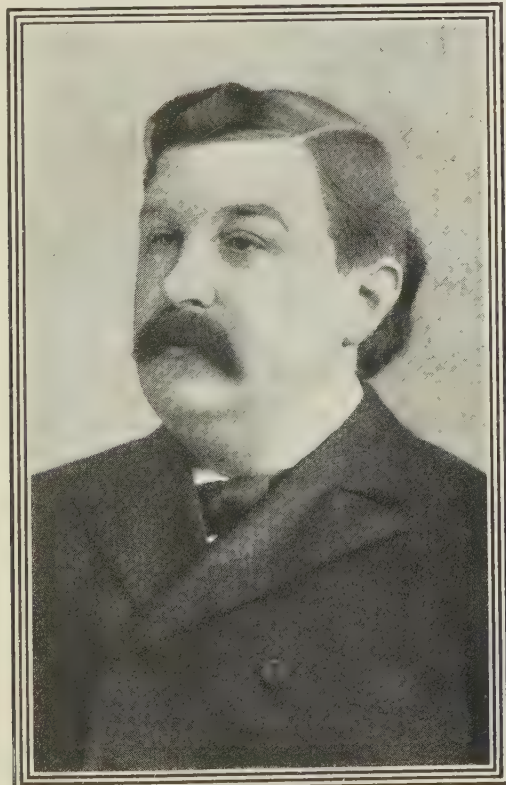
Surely the country has had all the object-lessons along this line that it needs. At this very time the Senate is compelled to bear the humiliation and disgrace of the pending Lorimer case, all because of its contemptuous refusal in the past to heed the demand of the country in favor of popular Senatorial elections. The Illinois Legislature that sent Mr. Lorimer to the Senate was deadlocked for many weeks and unable to perform its proper duties as the law-making body of the State because of its subjection to the game played by the desperate

and unscrupulous interests that were contending over the choice of a Senator. There was no scandal in the election of a Governor for the State of Illinois, and if it had been left to the direct decision of the voters whether they wished to give Senator Hopkins another term or preferred somebody else, a decision would have been reached that could not have been brought into question. Lorimer would never have been a candidate before the people of the State of Illinois, for under no circumstances would they have elected him to the Senate. He has been a powerful, though often unsuccessful, political boss in Chicago, and he and his friends knew how to provide the inducements that finally broke the Hopkins deadlock and elected Lorimer. The confessions of men who had been concerned with the giving and taking of large money bribes, and the subsequent evidence developed in prosecutions in the Illinois courts, have made it plain to all readers just how the thing was done.

*How Illinois
Feels
About It*

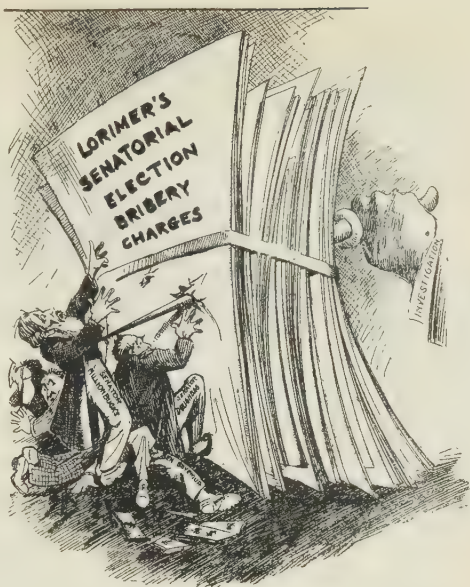
If the people of Illinois, regardless of party, could to-day express their opinion upon the usefulness

of the present method of electing United States Senators, their verdict against it would



Photograph by Clinedinst

SENATOR LORIMER, OF ILLINOIS



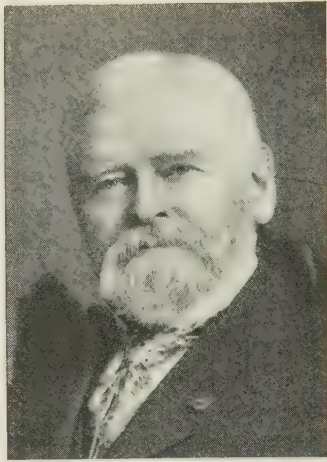
PROBING THOSE BRIBERY CHARGES MAY STIR
UP SOMETHING

From the Pioneer Press (St. Paul)

be well-nigh unanimous. They have seen their Legislature demoralized and held up to the scorn and derision of the entire country. They have seen it rendered unfit for its task of legislation by reason of undue strain and excitement over an election that the people themselves could have managed without embarrassment. They now witness the spectacle of the United States Senate diverted from its appropriate duties and engaged in a restudying of the disgusting details of legislative corruption at Springfield. There is nothing whatever that commends the present system to the people of Illinois, and there is much that condemns it. Mr. Lorimer is a man who has been used to fighting his way all his life, and it is not strange that he should be unable to see the impropriety of his fighting to keep his seat in the Senate. A man whose standards of honor comport with the dignity of the Senatorial office would have resigned his seat when the scandals were unearthed in Illinois, and gone back to clear up his record.

*The Case
Before the
Senate*

The fact that Senator Burrows and the majority of the Committee on Privileges and Elections should in December have brought in a report vindicating Lorimer could not change the facts that trials in court had brought before the entire country. Senator Frazier, of Tennessee, disagreed with Senator Burrows and the majority, while Senator Beveridge, of



SENATOR BURROWS, OF MICHIGAN

Indiana, who had been a less active member of the committee, did not concur in the majority report and announced that he would take further time to study the evidence before deciding upon his course. The majority, of course, found that there had been bribery and that several members of the Legislature had unquestionably taken money for giving their votes to Lorimer. But the committee did not conclusively ascertain that Lorimer was himself directly guilty of crime in these transactions, and Mr. Burrows and the majority also took the ground that they were not sure that enough legislators had been bribed to

have made Lorimer's election otherwise impossible. This was a very narrow position to take and one that is most compromising to the dignity of any legislative body. Senator Frazier, in his minority report, took the ground that the evidence, reasonably construed, implicated enough members of the Legislature to have made Lorimer's election turn upon those transactions. It must be remembered that Lorimer and his associates were at Springfield actively conducting the Lorimer canvass. It is not easy to believe



SENATOR BEVERIDGE POURING A LITTLE MINORITY REPORT INK INTO THE WHITEWASH OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE REPORT ON THE LORIMER CASE

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago)

that Lorimer, with his past record, should have been ignorant, in a general way, of the nature of the work that was being done in his behalf. It would seem as if Senator Burrows' committee was much more anxious to clear Lorimer than to vindicate the honor of the Senate.



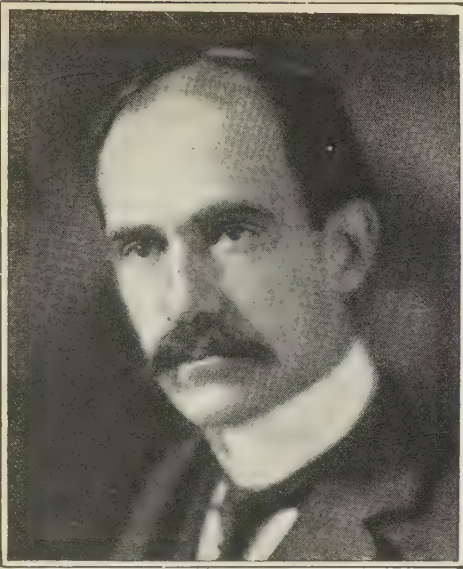
AT LAST?

The old gentleman (Direct Election of Senators) has been waiting in the Senate anteroom for many years

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago)

Beveridge's
Dissenting
Resolution

Mr. Beveridge, of Indiana—by no means satisfied with the Burrows report—studied the case for himself, and when the matter was ready for consideration, on January 9, he was prepared to make a minority report and to present a resolution declaring vacant the seat now held by Lorimer, on the ground that he had not been duly and legally elected. Mr. Beveridge's review of the case was scathing, and its conclusions were irresistible. The contest over electing a Senator had been going on in the Illinois Legislature for three months when suddenly, on the 26th of May, a number of Democrats who had steadily voted against all

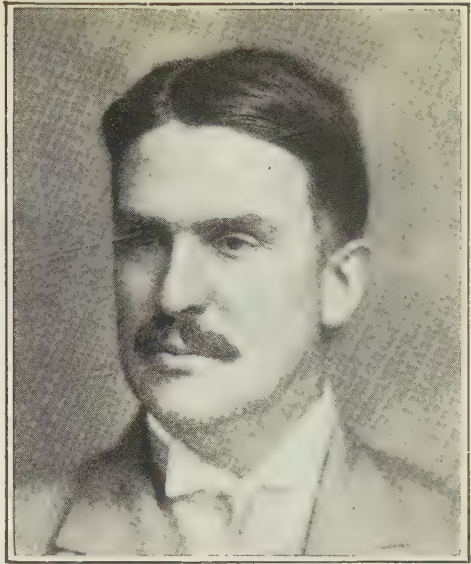


Photograph by Pirie MacDonald, N. Y.

HON. WILLIAM CHURCH OSBORN

Appointed legal adviser to Governor Dix

(Two New York Democrats of the highest character who, at personal sacrifice, have obeyed Governor Dix's call to serve the State in positions of arduous labor. Both these men were last month working in the interest of Mr. Shepard's election as United States Senator)



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HON. THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE

New Forest, Fish, and Game Commissioner

Republican candidates, suddenly swung over and elected Lorimer. It is conceded that some of these Democrats were purchased. At least four of them fully and freely admit that they were, and they make it clear enough that they were not alone in what they did. It is scarcely worth while to review the facts. The election of Lorimer stands almost unparalleled in the flagrancy of its corruption and dishonor. Everything surrounding Lorimer's election suggests the taint of fraud and crime. It is well understood that the report of Senator Burrows and his colleagues has all along been regarded with extreme disfavor by President Taft and those Republican leaders of the country who realize that a great party cannot afford to be identified with the condoning of transactions so notorious.

*Another
Case in
Evidence*

But even where, as in most cases, the election of Senators by the legislatures is not tainted by any such thing as the use of money for bribery, we have witnessed a great number of instances where a party boss or a political machine was in such control over a bare majority of the ruling party in a legislature as to force an improper Senatorial candidate upon a legislative caucus. Mr. William F. Sheehan would not have dreamed of being a candidate for the United States Senate from the State of New York if the choice was with the people.

His only chance for the Senate lay in the fact that he had been promised the position by Murphy, the boss of Tammany, who had come to regard himself as the dictator and owner of the Democratic party of the State of New York. Mr. Sheehan had been a local politician in Buffalo with a record that he might well wish to have forgotten; and from 1892 to 1895 he was Lieutenant Governor of the State.

*Sheehan as
Murphy's
Candidate*

For some fifteen years Sheehan has been wholly out of the public eye and mind. He has been practising law, and promoting electric lighting and other public service corporations; and has undoubtedly formed very powerful associations with certain corporate interests that are supposed to require vigilant public control. He has been well known in the inner councils of these corporations; and among a certain class of lawyers and politicians behind the scenes he has doubtless maintained a place of secret influence and power. But to the larger public, for many years, he has been as if he had been dead since the time of Martin Van Buren. The State possesses its group of prominent and active Democrats who might be regarded as men of such rank and standing as to be properly named for the Senate. Edward M. Shepard, Alton B. Parker, Thomas M. Osborne,—these are names that might well have come before the people

in case of a direct vote for Senator. Some of Mr. Sheehan's legal associates and business intimates had come before the public with letters to the newspapers conveying the information that William F. Sheehan is indeed a man of such-and-such attainments and of such-and-such qualifications. From all over the State there had been a demand for Edward M. Shepard; but from no source whatsoever had there been any demand for Sheehan. As a matter of private arrangement, Mr. Murphy was simply proposing to present to Mr. Sheehan the Senatorship from the great State of New York. We are not raising the question whether or not Mr. Sheehan possesses the eminent qualifications ascribed to him. There is much reason to think that he possesses no qualifications whatever that would fit him to represent New York in the Senate. Yet, as the first fruits of the Democratic victory in New York, the Democratic caucus, in the middle of January, made Mr. Sheehan its candidate for the Senate. Charles F. Murphy, head of Tammany Hall, went personally to Albany to put his promise into execution.

The New York Deadlock
It so happened that a handful of Democratic legislators, about twenty in number, refused to go into the caucus; and the Republicans gave their nominal support to Senator Depew. The handful of bolting Democrats sufficed to create a deadlock. Sheehan was about ten votes short of enough to elect him. The plan pursued in Illinois, after a protracted deadlock, was to go over to the other party and buy enough votes to turn the scales. But although Mr. Murphy and Tammany have ample funds, which they might use on behalf of Mr. Sheehan, there is not the slightest reason to think that any Republican votes could be bought, nor does it seem possible that any of those Democrats who refused to vote for Sheehan on the first ballot could in any way be induced to surrender to Boss Murphy. As we go to press, therefore, it has seemed likely enough that the deadlock would soon be broken and that some compromise candidate—Alton B. Parker, for example—might be chosen. Sheehan, by the way, is a member of Judge Parker's law firm, and the former Democratic candidate for the Presidency had given him a handsome testimonial. But the simple difference is that Judge Parker is a public man of national standing, and that Sheehan is not a public man in any sense whatsoever. There is no more deadly form of insult to the public than for a brazen and detested boss like Murphy to attempt to thrust

into a high place like the United States Senate a man who is merely his own private choice, and whose position is so obscure that, if left to themselves, the people would never have thought of him, even if they had been given a hundred guesses.

*The Popular
Ordeal is
Requisite*

Thus the Lorimer case in Illinois illustrates in one way the harm that comes from the present method of electing Senators, while the Sheehan incident in New York illustrates it in a different way. When a candidate has to come before the people, a boss like Murphy is obliged to think several times before he acts. Thus Murphy went to the State Democratic convention, last September, and was regarded as its boss. But he would not have dared to propose William F. Sheehan as a candidate for Governor. When it was found that Mayor Gaynor's health made it impossible for him to run, the State chairman, Mr. Dix, was agreed upon as a man who could go before the State with a record which was very clean and creditable though rather slight. If that same convention at Rochester had been obliged to nominate a candidate for the United States Senate to be voted upon at the polls, it would almost certainly have named Mr. Shepard, Judge Parker, or Mr. Thomas M. Osborne.

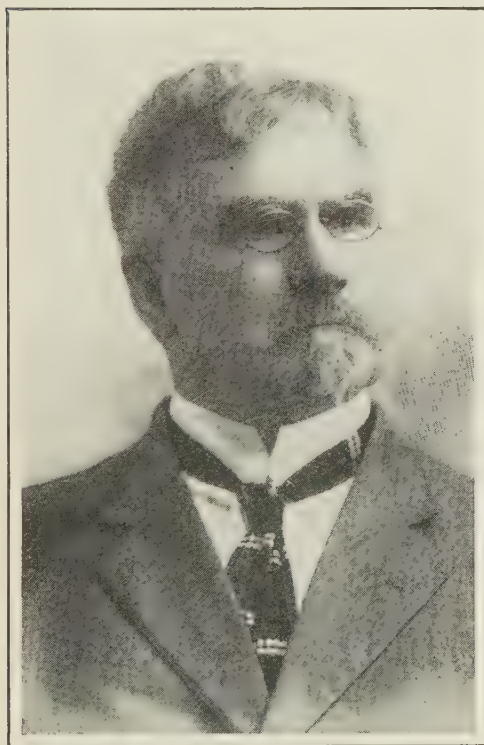
*Smith vs.
Martine in
New Jersey*

The State of New Jersey has been affording another striking illustration of this same subject. In that State there is a primary-election law that allows the voters to express their preferences for United States Senator. It has, of



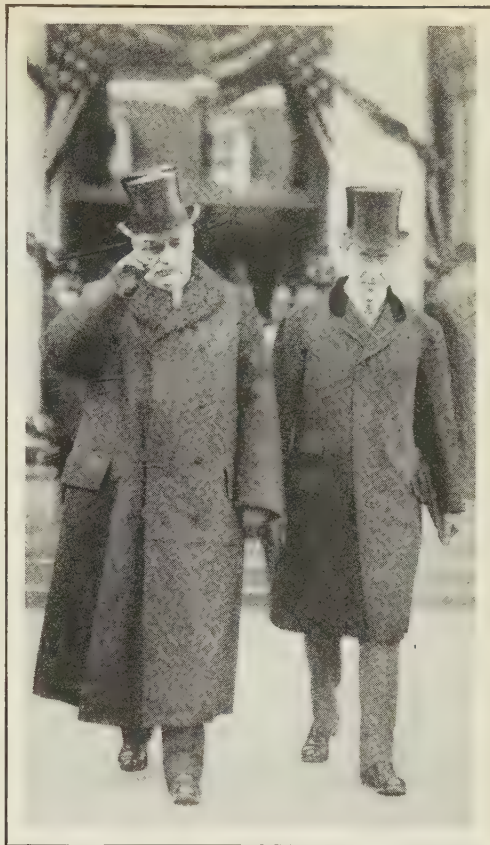
THE JUDGMENT OF PARIS
From the *Tribune* (New York)

course, no binding force either in law or in morals upon members of the Legislature, except as such members, in their own campaigns for election to the law-making body, pledge themselves to their constituents that they will, or will not, act in accordance with the results of the popular primary. There were four or five Republican candidates for the Senate, including the retiring incumbent, Senator Kean. Two of the very prominent Republican candidates submitted their names to the popular primary, while Kean himself, and one or two others, preferred not to expose themselves to that risk. In the Democratic primaries, the names of three Democrats were on the voting list as candidates for the United States Senate, and the result was overwhelming in favor of James E. Martine. The most potent Democrat of



JAMES E. MARTINE
(Choice of the Democratic primaries in New Jersey for
United States Senator)

the "boss" type in New Jersey is Mr. James Smith, Jr., a wealthy business man of Newark who has long controlled the Democratic machine of Essex, the most populous of New Jersey's counties. Mr. Smith was supposed to have had a good deal to do with bringing about the nomination of Woodrow Wilson for Governor, in so far as that nomination could



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GOVERNOR WILSON, OF NEW JERSEY (ON THE RIGHT),
AND THE RETIRING GOVERNOR, MR. FORT,
ON INAUGURATION DAY

be attributed to "practical politics." It was, of course, a case of the practical politician being shrewd enough to interpret public sentiment, and to aid in the nomination of a man who could certainly carry the State for himself and who might also draw a Democratic legislature in his train. Mr. James Smith, Jr., has served one term in the United States Senate (1893-99). It was distinctly stated to Dr. Wilson, and to the people of New Jersey, that Smith would not now be a candidate for the Senate. His name was not presented to the primaries, and if it had been so submitted for popular endorsement it would have been sweepingly defeated. The prevailing opinion during the campaign was that the result would give New Jersey a Democratic Governor and a Republican legislature. The Democratic sweep, however, proved to be complete. Not till then did it appear that the plan of Mr. James Smith and his machine had been to use Wilson's popularity to secure a Democratic legislature, after which it might be easy enough to use Smith's



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INAUGURATION OF WOODROW WILSON AS GOVERNOR OF NEW JERSEY

(Governor Wilson in the center)

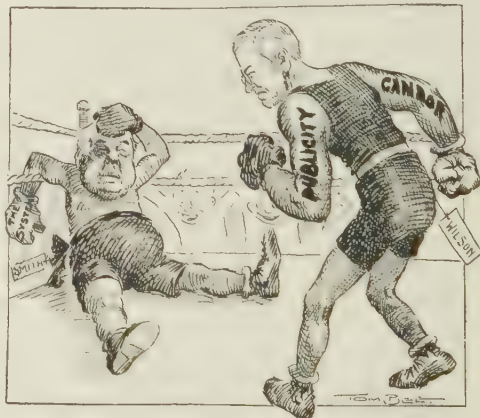
political control to make him the Democratic caucus candidate for the Senate.

Wilson's Fight Against Boss Rule

The Democratic legislators-elect from Smith's own county were brought forward, in a solemn and suppliant request to the boss who controlled them, to ask that he should do the State the great honor of allowing himself to be elected to the Senate. Then began a bitter, determined fight on both sides, Governor-elect Wilson taking the lead and addressing great Democratic audiences against Smith and in favor of Martine. The Martine men, when the Legislature organized, surprised the Smith men by taking the ground that no legislative caucus was necessary to find a Democratic candidate, inasmuch as the people of the State themselves had chosen a candidate at the primaries. This was a perfectly tenable position, and it put Smith where he could not be elected without very large aid from the Republican members who were controlled by Smith's allies in the Republican machine. On his inauguration day, January 17, Governor Wilson declared to the newspaper men that he considered Martine's election as practically certain. Smith's election, if it had been accomplished, would have had the same effect upon Democratic opinion throughout the country as would the election of Sheehan in New York. It would have handicapped the party in its plans and aspirations for 1912. This New Jersey situation has again shown clearly that while a voluntary primary election for the choice of a Senatorial candidate may, indeed, mitigate the evils of the present mode of electing Senators, it offers no satisfactory substitute for the full and complete election of Senators by the people.

The Original Method Nullified

There are those who fall back upon the Constitutional provision and declare that the plan devised by the founders of the Government is still good enough. But they forget the fact—or choose to ignore it—that our present way of electing Senators is grotesquely different from that which the Constitution prescribes and intends. The Constitution intends, and means to prescribe, that the entire Legislature, including every individual member of it, shall take part in the actual choice of a United States Senator. As a matter of fact, under the existing system, a Senator is usually not chosen by the Legislature in any true sense. He is chosen by the party caucus of the party which has a majority of the members of the two houses of the Legislature on joint ballot. It is regarded, under the present system, as virtually necessary for legislators elected in the usual



IN NEW JERSEY—"LICKED TO A FRAZZLE!"

And say—note the arm development

From the Sun (Baltimore)

way on a party ticket to enter the party caucus and to abide by the result. Thus, if the Legislature has 150 members, of whom 76 are Democrats and 74 are Republicans, it is the almost invariable opinion of strict party men that the majority choice of the Democratic caucus ought to be promptly accepted by the entire Legislature. Under this system, every one of the 74 Republican votes must be thrown away. They will be expended upon a complimentary vote for some Republican who cannot by any chance be elected. If the Democratic caucus should be closely divided between two candidates—the one representing, as is so frequently the case, the private choice of the machine or the boss, and the other representing a decent public opinion and some regard for the traditions of statesmanship—it is nevertheless the doctrine of the party man that if the machine candidate can be forced through the caucus by a majority of a single vote, every man who has gone into the caucus must accept the result and the man must be elected in the face of an outraged public opinion. Thus 39 men would control a legislature of 150 men.

Exemplified
at
Albany

This was the game that Murphy believed he could play at Albany. Ninety Democrats went into the caucus and became pledged to Sheehan. But twenty-two Democrats, most of them young and of independent mind, refused to go into caucus and pledged themselves to oppose Sheehan. They were led by a young State Senator from Dutchess County, Frank-



THE OPEN SEASON FOR SENATORS
Tammany on the hunt
From the *World* (New York)



HON. FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT
(Leader of Anti-Tammany Democrats in Senate)

lin Roosevelt by name, a kinsman of Theodore Roosevelt and evidently a man of the same kind of pluck and public spirit in politics. Eighty Republican votes on the first ballot, in accordance with the action of the Republican caucus, were cast for Senator Depew. A majority of the independent Democratic group voted for Mr. Edward M. Shepard. Although no Republicans would have dared to change their votes to Sheehan, it was widely declared in the newspapers that the Murphy-Sheehan plan would be to induce enough Republican members to be absent from Albany on a given day to allow Mr. Sheehan's ninety votes to become a majority of the total number of members present and voting. This could have been accomplished by the concerted absence of about twenty Republicans. So intimate, in many ways, are the political machines of the two great parties that there is always real danger that tricks of this kind may be played. Now, who is there with the effrontery to say openly that this party caucus method of foisting Senators upon the country is the exact plan intended by the framers of the Constitution?

A Legislator's
Oath
of Office

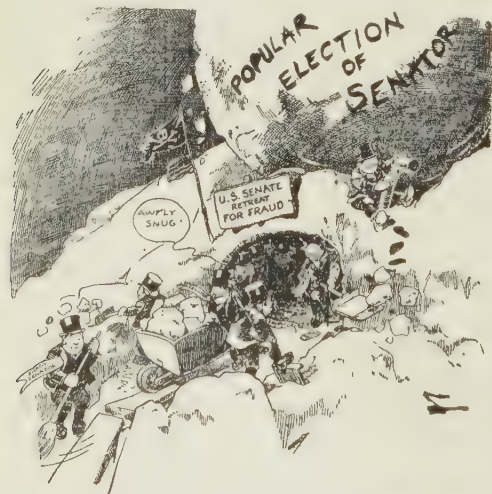
The founders of the Government did not take into account the changes that would come about in the real working arrangements of government, through the crystallization of a party system. They supposed that the legisla-

tures would be made up of men of superior character, truly representing their constituents, and that such groups of men would be well fitted to name a Senator or to choose a President. They did not contemplate the growth of honest and responsible parties; and much less could any of them have dreamed of the evolution of party dictatorship by a private boss like Murphy. It would, of course, be quixotic under present conditions to expect the 80 Republicans, having given Mr. Depew the compliment of a few ballots, to take a real part in the choice of a Senator. They could have done this by throwing their solid vote for the Democrat who could best represent the great State of New York at Washington,—in consideration of the anti-Sheehan Democrats agreeing to act together, on behalf of such a candidate as Edward M. Shepard. Yet such a course of action would show common sense, a fine spirit of duty, and a perception of the meaning of a legislator's oath of office. Instead of injuring the Republican party, it would greatly strengthen it by proving to the country that Republicans are not dog-in-the-manger partisans, and that when they cannot possibly choose a Republican Senator they are willing to help choose the best Democrat who can be found. It is, of course, quite easy to confute these suggestions from the standpoint of any strict party man,—that is to say, a man who believes that government and politics must always be run like a game of football between two precisely balanced organizations. But while politics is, indeed, a great party game, it is also some-

thing more. We have real public business to do at Washington that requires training, talent, and character. The greater part of the business of the United States Senate is done in committee rooms by men who are not working as partisans but as servants of the country. As regards the real business that is carried on, it is much more important to secure the election of a good man than of a Republican or a Democrat.

*Indiana as
a Further
Instance*

The recent Indiana election affords an entirely different sort of illustration of the bad working of the present method of electing Senators. There was overwhelming evidence that the people of the State desired to give another term to Senator Beveridge. If the popular feeling could have expressed itself, it would have been useless for anybody last fall to have run against this keen and able Senator, who is believed by the people of his State to have done his public work as a public man ought to do it. Yet,—as respects things in general,—it was plain that Indiana was last fall strongly inclined to go Democratic. And this Democratic tendency affected the choice of a legislature, for some specific local reasons. If a legislature had nothing to do but to select a Senator, Indiana would have chosen a Beveridge legislature with much gusto. But the question of a repeal of the county-option law was pending, and on that ground, as well as others, powerful interests brought every effort to bear to secure a Democratic legislature. Even under these circumstances Mr. Beveridge might conceivably have been re-elected, had it not happened that a Democratic convention had previously named the Hon. John W. Kern as candidate for Senator, so that the Democratic legislative candidates were pledged in advance to Kern. Here again, by a different *modus operandi*, the manner of electing Senators prescribed by the Constitution was entirely set aside. For in Indiana two party conventions had in advance named the candidates for Senator, and the legislative candidates were accordingly pledged all along the line. There was no need of legislative caucuses, inasmuch as the election of a Democratic legislature meant Kern, just as the election of a Republican legislature would have meant Beveridge. This arrangement was not what the people of Indiana desired. What they wished was to vote directly for Senator, as well as to vote directly for their candidates for the legislature. They did not wish to make the one thing depend upon the other.



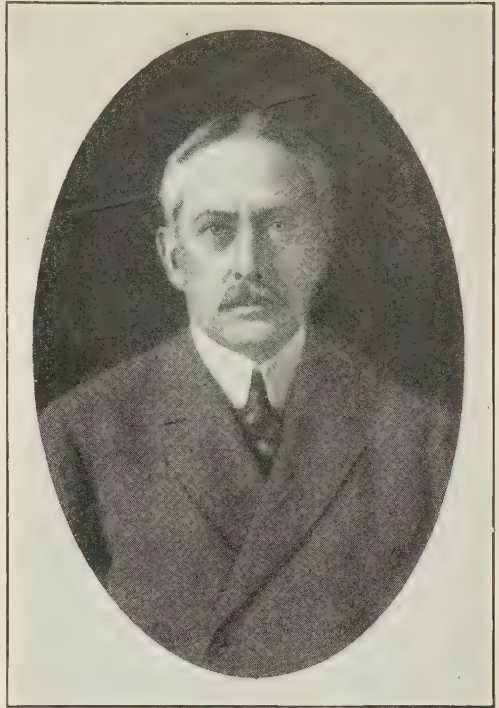
THE DEEPER THEY DIG, THE SOONER SOMETHING
WILL DROP
From the News (Chicago)

*Lodge's Ordeal
in Massachusetts*

In the State of Massachusetts, Senator Lodge has been chosen to another term, although a group of anti-Lodge Republicans refused to go into the legislative caucus. For some weeks it had been seriously questioned by the newspapers and politicians of Massachusetts whether or not Mr. Lodge could win. His case in no way resembled that of Sheehan in New York. Senator Lodge is a distinguished public man, who would in any case have been a foremost figure in a popular vote for Senator. It is fairly probable that a popular vote this year would have defeated Lodge and elected a Democrat, for quite the same reasons that can be given for the defeat of Governor Draper and the election as governor of Mr. Eugene Foss on the Democratic ticket. The present method of electing Senators has not, in Massachusetts, worked in a scandalous fashion, as in so many other States. Yet even in Massachusetts it would be better, on many accounts, if Senators were subjected to the test of a direct popular vote.

*Rhode Island
and Aldrich's
Successor*

It would be interesting to know how a direct vote for Senator would affect a typical small State like Rhode Island. Although Mr. Aldrich is retiring, the "organization" seems still to be in control. The two leading Republican candidates for the seat about to be vacated were Mr. Henry F. Lippitt and Judge Le Baron B. Colt. Mr. Lippitt was the man selected by the party authorities. Judge Colt's supporters refused to go into the legislative caucus. The Democratic candidate was Judge Brown, of the United States District Court, Judge Colt being on the United States Circuit bench. Mr. Lippitt is a wealthy cotton manufacturer, regarded as standing for the highest kind of tariff protection on the textile schedules that the progressives of the country desire to revise. Judge Colt was strongly supported by an intelligent public sentiment throughout Rhode Island. If the people of the State had been empowered to choose their own Senator, the choice would have been between Judge Colt, Republican, and Judge Brown, Democrat,—at least this seems to have been probable. But the attempt of Judge Colt's supporters to deadlock the legislature failed, and on January 18, Mr. Lippitt was elected by a rather close margin. There will naturally be unusual interest in following the Senatorial career of the able business man who succeeds Mr. Aldrich. That he can ever become as powerful as his predecessor is not to be imagined.

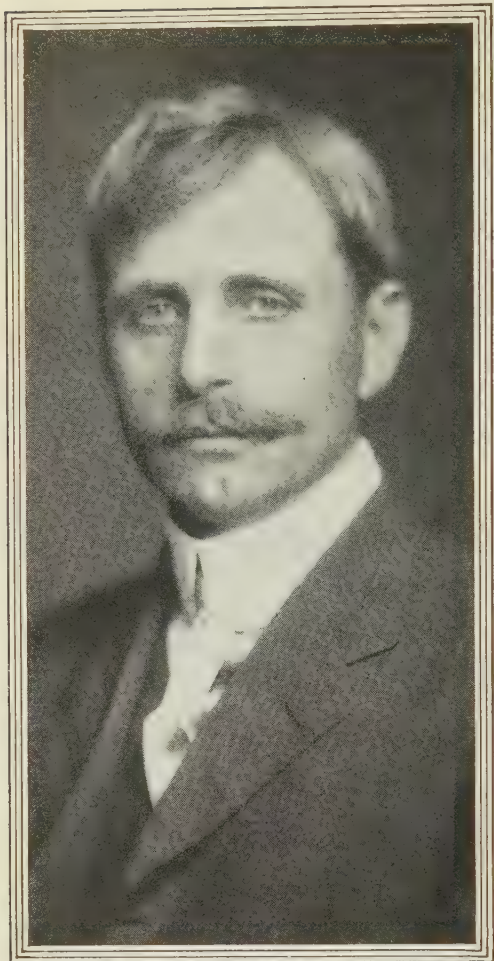


HON. HENRY F. LIPPITT, OF RHODE ISLAND
("The man who succeeds Aldrich")

*Connecticut's
Admirable
Choice*

Connecticut, like Massachusetts, is a State that last November chose a Democratic Governor and a Republican legislature. Governor Simeon E. Baldwin was quietly inaugurated January 3, and in his inaugural address took strong and advanced positions on several subjects of great public interest. But the really exciting affair in Connecticut politics last month was the choice of a United States Senator. The incumbent, Senator Bulkeley, was in the same situation as Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts. There was opposition to him from the progressive wing of the party, but Bulkeley believed that he could hold his seat. He fought valiantly, but, unlike Lodge, he failed. The Legislative caucus, on January 10, gave 64 votes to Senator Bulkeley and 113 to ex-Governor George P. McLean. It is within bounds to say that Mr. McLean is the chosen leader of the best and most progressive Republicans of Connecticut. Upon his election as Senator, on January 17, the *New York Tribune* editorially made the following remarks about him:

He is confidently expected by the best elements in the Republican party to uphold the highest standards of leadership which have existed in that State, and to increase Connecticut's prestige at



HON. GEORGE P. McLEAN
(Connecticut's Senator-elect)

Washington. Mr. McLean is in the prime of his powers. He is a singularly felicitous public speaker, knows his constituency thoroughly and is in sympathy with all efforts to purify politics, improve administration and raise the tone of public life. He will represent the people of Connecticut with intelligence and distinction. The State is to be congratulated on its choice.

The whole country is the gainer by having as a New England Senator a man of the qualities of George P. McLean. His choice helps to fill the great gap that was left by the death of Senator Orville H. Platt, of that State, some five or six years ago.

*The Man Who
Succeeds
Eugene Hale*

Almost as interesting to the country as the Aldrich successorship is the man chosen to succeed Hale, of Maine. Charles F. Johnson, who was elected by the legislature at Augusta on January 17, is a leading lawyer of his State, and

he won a well-fought contest against several strong rivals in the Democratic caucus on January 4. He had the active support of the new Democratic Governor, Mr. Plaisted. His chief opponent was Obadiah Gardner, for a long time master of the State Grange. The friends of Gardner claim that if the choice had been made by the people their candidate would probably have been preferred. Johnson's candidacy was embarrassed by the fact that the so-called "Hale wing" of the Republican party, through its newspaper organs, expressed a marked preference for him, so that his opponents claimed that he stood for the same business interests that had always been behind Hale. But there seems no particular justification for such statements. Mr. Johnson will at once take his position as a strong member of the Democratic half of the Senate. The State of Maine has to her credit an extraordinary list of men who have represented her in both houses at Washington, and she continues to produce statesmen. Maine, like Rhode Island, Delaware, and one or two other of the smaller States, has seemed to find it easier than such great States as New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois, to lend her men of real strength to the service of the nation.



HON. CHARLES F. JOHNSON, OF MAINE
("The man who succeeds Hale")

Pomerene
of
Ohio

In the Democratic joint caucus of the Ohio legislature on January 5, the Hon. Atlee Pomerene was nominated for the United States Senate to succeed Senator Charles Dick, Republican, and on January 10 he was duly elected Senator, receiving every Democratic vote. Mr. Pomerene had already been elected Lieutenant-Governor on the ticket with Governor Harmon in November. Pomerene spent his boyhood on an Ohio farm, and was graduated from Princeton five years after Governor Woodrow Wilson finished his course at the same college. He afterward studied law at Cincinnati and removed to the city of Canton, McKinley's home, where he has lived for the past twenty-five years. He is a warm friend of Governor Harmon, with whom he stands as against machine methods in the Democracy of Ohio. Harmon was much denounced by certain leading politicians for having supposedly favored Pomerene's election to the Senate, and the machine at once threatened to form Woodrow Wilson clubs for 1912. All of which might well amuse Governor Wilson, since his own fight against the same kind of machine politicians is of necessity more intense than that of Harmon. Mr. Pomerene is well spoken of, and has come to the front in spite of the bosses and on his own personal merits. He has the ardent support of all the friends of "Tom" Johnson of Cleveland.



SENATOR-ELECT POMERENE, AS
PORTRAYED BY CARTOONIST
WESTERMAN OF THE OHIO
STATE JOURNAL

Choosing
Successors to
Elkins and Scott

In the State of West Virginia, there developed last month another of those shocking and disgraceful situations due to the total moral collapse of our present method of electing Senators. The Democratic victory in November had the result of bringing to an end the Senatorial career of Nathan B. Scott, whose term



HON. ATLEE POMERENE, OF OHIO, WHO WILL SUCCEED
DICK IN THE SENATE

expires on the 4th of March. The death at Washington of Mr. Scott's colleague, Stephen B. Elkins, on January 4, created a second vacancy for the Democrats to fill. The Republican Governor, Glasscock, made haste to appoint Davis Elkins, a son of the late Senator, to fill his father's seat. This appointment could be valid for only a few days, or until the legislature could organize and elect Mr. Elkins' successor. Clarence W. Watson and W. E. Chilton were nominated in the Democratic caucus of the legislature on January 18, and they in due time will replace at Washington the well-known veterans, Elkins and Scott. But, meanwhile, some fifteen Republican members of the State Senate had fled to Cincinnati, Ohio, in order to get beyond the jurisdiction of the State and delay the organization and work of the legislature. The country has no interest in the precise details of the controversy, but has a right to entertain a very poor opinion of West Virginia politics, which has so long been dominated by a little group of capitalists and exploiters of the coal, oil, and other resources of the State.

A Deadlock
in
Tennessee

In Tennessee, there has been another discreditable legislative deadlock, also due to the obvious unfitness of legislatures to elect United States Senators. The Democrats of that State have



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SENATOR-ELECT HITCHCOCK, OF NEBRASKA

been divided into bitter factions. It seems that a minority of Democrats in the lower branch of the Legislature refused to appear and take the oath of office, and the upper house, at least for a time, declined to recognize the lower house as organized. The disturbed situation seems to have been due to the methods of the retiring Governor, M. R. Patterson. The insurgents came into their places after some days of absence, and business proceeded. But it was difficult to reach a Senatorial choice. Senator Frazier's chances at length seemed hopeless, and those of the Hon. Benton McMillin were improving. Gen. Luke Wright was a possible compromise candidate.

In Pennsylvania, Senator Oliver
Experiences Elsewhere was reelected without opposition, the same being true of Senator Sutherland, of Utah, who is one of the orthodox, or so-called "standpat" leaders of the upper house. In several of the Western States, selections previously made in popular primaries have been duly honored by legislatures. In Missouri, for example, where James A. Reed defeated ex-Governor David R. Francis at the primaries, the Legislature acted and Mr. Reed will succeed the retiring Republican member, Senator Warner. Ne-

braska, also, sends a Democrat to succeed the retiring Republican, Senator Burkett. The new Senator is Gilbert M. Hitchcock, who is publisher and editor of the Omaha *World-Herald*, and is a well-known and able Congressman from the Omaha district. His election to the Senate follows easily and without friction the popular victory won by him at the Democratic primaries in the autumn. This Nebraska method at least relieves the Legislature, saves its dignity, and permits it to attend to its proper work on behalf of the State. We have already commented upon the success of Congressman Townsend in a primary election over the incumbent, Senator Burrows. It is fairly probable that without the primary election there would have been a hard, protracted struggle in the Legis-



HON. JAMES A. REED, THE NEW MISSOURI SENATOR

lature, for Burrows and his friends command ample resources of the kind that are everywhere so efficacious in handling the legislative choice of a Senator on the old lines. The Michigan Legislature has confirmed the verdict of the primaries without delay or hesitation.

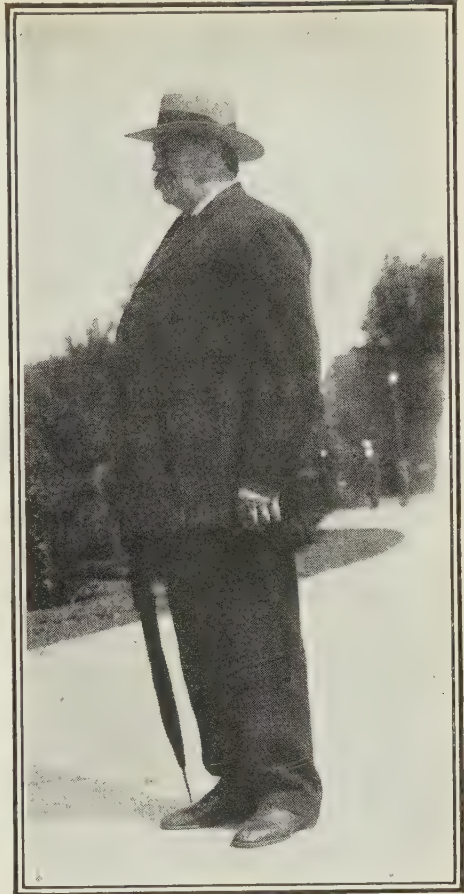
In Minnesota, Senator Moses E. Clapp was reelected on January 17 by a remarkable concurrence of opinion and action. Mr. Clapp has been so pronounced an insurgent, and so con-

Clapp and Poindexter

vinced an opponent of certain attitudes and alliances that have weakened President Taft in the regard of the Middle West, that there was some talk of bringing forward either James A. Tawney, Frank B. Kellogg, Congressman Stevens, or Governor Eberhart. But on January 17 every Republican member of both houses of the Legislature voted for Moses E. Clapp, and two-thirds of the Democratic members also cast their votes for this quiet, strong, and growing statesman. In the State of Washington, as our readers will remember, the fight was in the primaries last fall, when Miles Poindexter, the well-known insurgent Congressman, carried every county in the State on a progressive platform. On January 17 the Legislature sustained the people's choice, and Poindexter received a vote of 86 to 10 in the House, and of 40 to 1 in the Senate. The State of Washington is very glad not to have a legislative contest on its hands.

*Contrasting
Instances*

In Iowa, the situation was uncertain at the time of our going to press. It will be remembered that the Hon. Lafayette Young had been appointed temporarily to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Dolliver. In Colorado, a choice will have to be made to succeed Senator Hughes, who died last



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SENATOR CLAPP, OF MINNESOTA



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SENATOR MILES POINDEXTER, OF WASHINGTON

month. In Montana last month the Legislature was deadlocked over the choice of a Democratic successor to the retiring Republican, Senator Carter. The people of Montana have had some very scandalous episodes in the history of their representation in the United States Senate. They would have been happier this winter if they had thrashed the choice of a Senator out at a primary election last fall. Their deadlock at this time brings painfully to mind other Democratic Senatorial elections in Montana, and gives us a further instance of the need of changing the Constitution and electing Senators by direct vote of the people. California, on the other hand, furnishes a pleasant example of the value of even an informal reference of such a matter to the people. In the primary elections, Judge John D. Works, of the State Supreme Court, who was the candidate of the insurgent wing of the Republicans, had a decided plurality of votes cast, although the other Republican candidate, Mr. A. G.

Spalding, carried a larger number of districts. Mr. Works was clearly entitled to be pronounced victor, and the Legislature so decided. On January 10 he received 92 votes as against 21 for Spalding, thus being duly elected Senator on the first ballot. But for the primary there would probably have been a long and embarrassing contest, disturbing the Legislature for many weeks.

*Pending
Work
in Congress*

It is difficult in a short session of Congress to do much more than to pass the great appropriation bills. The Republicans are trying, in the concluding weeks of this session, to pass a law authorizing a tariff commission. Besides the bill of Senator Beveridge that has long been pending, several new ones have been submitted to committees. Representative Nicholas Longworth has introduced a tariff-commission bill in the House, and Mr. Dalzell himself, heretofore hostile on principle, has made a modified proposal. The Democrats are not helping the Republicans, and it is somewhat doubtful whether we shall see a tariff commission established for several years to come. President Taft's attempt to run the departments more economically is not likely to cut down the sum total of public expenditure. For example, the Sulloway pension bill, with Speaker Cannon's enthusiastic endorsement, has passed the House, and it adds \$45,000,000 to the pension roll, bringing the total annual appropriation on that score to more than \$200,000,000. The Senate may cut the amount down, but it will not reject the new legislation. President Taft's efforts to secure means with which to fortify the Panama Canal are meeting with much opposition. The determined proposal to grant some form of steamship subvention which would develop our trade with South America is also one of the President's pet measures that does not find a smooth course.

*Possibly an
Extra
Session*

It is hoped that the postal savings bank experiment may at once be followed by that of a parcels post for the rural free delivery routes. But from certain groups of merchants this plan is meeting with such militant opposition that it is not likely to make its way through the present Congress. Modifications of the House rules, made last year, have a tendency to retard business, and it is considered not unlikely that the 4th of March may find some of the appropriation bills still pending. This would necessitate the calling of the new Congress in special session, and we should at once

see the Hon. Champ Clark in the Speaker's chair and a new Ways and Means Committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Underwood, of Alabama, wrestling with the task of committee assignments, and trying to frame a new general tariff bill.

*Reapportion-
ment of
the House*

A bill for the reapportionment of the House on the basis of the new census has been introduced in Congress by Representative Crumpacker, chairman of the Committee on Census. This bill, which is intended to serve as an outline of a measure to be developed in committee and in the course of the House debates, provides for 433 members, excluding Arizona and New Mexico, which together will be entitled to three members on the basis of present population. The present House has 391 members, and any proposed change in the ratio which would lead to a decrease in the representation of any State or States, would be so hotly contested that it is agreed on all hands that no proposition of the sort would have the slightest chance of success. Mr. Crumpacker's bill provides for as small a number of members as is possible without decreasing the population of any State. It happens that as one result of the census of 1910 several of the Mississippi Valley States, which have influential delegations in Congress, were threatened with a loss in representation because of the relatively slight gain shown in their population. This fact makes it all the more improbable that any smaller number than that decided on by Mr. Crumpacker's committee will be accepted by the present Congress.

*State Gains
in
Representation*

The ratio of population to representatives is fixed by the committee at 211,877—an increase of 17,695 over the ratio now in force. Under the new apportionment one member each will be gained by the States of Alabama, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, and West Virginia, while the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Texas, and Washington will gain two members each, California and Oklahoma three members each, Pennsylvania four, and New York six. Under the method embodied in the proposed bill the total membership of the House is reached by dividing the population of each State by the ratio (211,877) and assigning to each State one representative for each full ratio of population, and one in addition for



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HON. OSCAR W. UNDERWOOD, OF ALABAMA

(Who has served in Congress for sixteen years and will be chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in the next Congress, acting under Champ Clark as Speaker of the House. This position has added importance because a Democratic caucus, on January 19, decided to use the Ways and Means Committee as a Committee on Committees to supersede the Speaker in the assignment of members to their committee work)

each major fraction thereof. This method has the endorsement of Prof. Walter F. Willcox, of Cornell University, who was one of the chief statisticians of the twelfth census. We cannot enter into the details of this and other plans, but for a clear and useful statement of the reapportionment problem we commend our readers to the article appearing in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS from the pen of Prof. Frederic Austin Ogg (see page 208). The increasing size of the House of Representatives, which seems inevitable, will necessitate a rearrangement of the hall of the House. It is generally admitted that the desks now in use are less needed than before the establishment of the

House office building. Under the order of the House, made some time ago, it is understood that the desks will be removed before the assembling of the Sixty-second Congress. Under the new conditions a House of greatly enlarged membership should be able to transact business more intelligently and satisfactorily than a House of the present membership under existing conditions.

*Great Cases
in the
Supreme Court*

January was a memorable month in the history of the United States Supreme Court. Both the Standard Oil and the American Tobacco Company cases came up for reargument before the full bench, Justices Lamar and Van Devanter



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THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT AS NOW CONSTITUTED

(From left to right, standing: Justices Van Devanter, Lurton, Hughes and Lamar. Seated: Justices Holmes, Harlan, Chief Justice White, Justices McKenna and Day)

having taken their seats on January 3. Thus all nine places on the bench were filled for the first time in many months. For the first time also Chief Justice White presided at a hearing of cases. It may be in order to remind our readers that the Standard Oil case, which has been spoken of by Attorney-General Wickersham as the most important suit that ever came before the Supreme Court, was instituted five years ago, in the United States Circuit Court for the Eastern District of Missouri. The federal Government was the complainant and alleged that the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, as a holding company, had acquired since 1899, and held by direct stock ownership, sixty-five companies. These companies, it was charged, owned the stock of forty-nine others. The Government asked that this organization be dissolved. By unanimous decision, four judges of the Circuit Court made a decree dissolving the organization both because it was in restriction of interstate commerce, and because it was an attempt to monopolize. Before the decree became effective, an appeal took the case to the Supreme Court. The

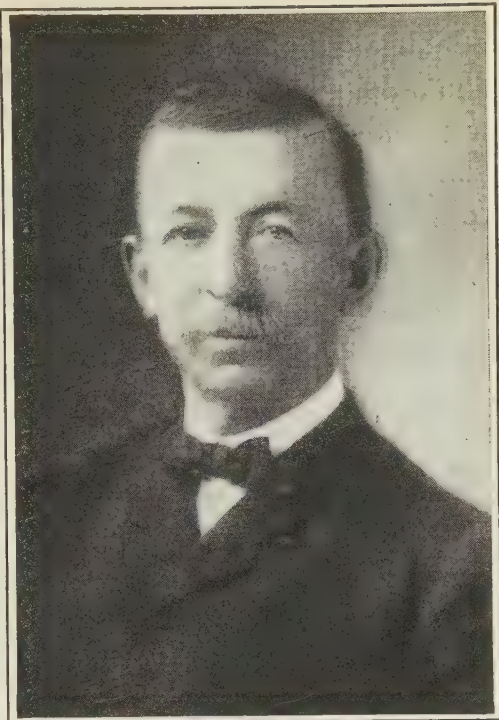
tobacco case was instituted in 1907 in the Circuit Court for the Southern District of New York. Allied companies in the tobacco business, with combined assets of more than \$400,000,000, made up the organization which the Government sought to have the court dissolve. Three of the four judges united in a decree holding that many of the corporations had entered into a combination in restraint of trade in violation of the first section of the Sherman anti-trust law. The application of the Sherman law to the organizations involves an investigation of the facts as well as an interpretation of the law. The arguments before the Supreme Court last month attempted answers to these three questions: What is commerce? What is restraint of trade or commerce? and What is it to monopolize? In the tobacco case the Government was represented by Attorney-General Wickersham and Mr. McReynolds, and the corporations by Mr. Hornblower and Mr. Delancey Nicoll. The Standard Oil Company was well defended by John G. Milburn of Buffalo, while Mr. Frank B. Kellogg ably assisted the Attorney-General.

Baltimore
and
Johns Hopkins

The people of Baltimore signalized the beginning of the new year by completing a fund for the Johns Hopkins University to comply with the terms of a conditional gift made by the General Education Board, which some time ago offered the University \$250,000 on the condition that \$750,000 additional be raised by the first of January, 1911. Not only did the University's Baltimore friends meet the General Education Board's condition, but added gifts brought the total to more than \$900,000, so that the sum now available to the University is about \$1,150,000. The contributors to the fund numbered nearly 1200 in the city of Baltimore alone. It should be remembered that since the University was founded, in the early seventies, the people of Baltimore have given to the institution nearly three and a half million dollars, thus duplicating the original generous gift of the founder. Perhaps there is not another city on the continent in which such really popular support of an institution of higher education has been exhibited. It is gratifying to the friends of Johns Hopkins that so effective an appeal has been made to local pride, but the work of the institution is national in its scope and should have more than local support. The trustees estimate the present needs of the institution at \$2,000,000, and they are asking men of wealth all over the country to come to the assistance of this pioneer among American universities.

Plans of
University
Expansion

The purpose of this special fund is partly to transfer the University to its new site at "Homewood," in the outskirts of Baltimore, and partly to extend its activity to four new departments of study: (1) A Training School for Teachers, which will enable the University to pay a part of its service to Baltimore and the State of Maryland; (2) a School of Applied Science, where advanced students will be taught methods of scientific investigation applied to industrial pursuits; (3) a School of Jurisprudence, not merely occasional or professional in character, but a place for the scientific study of laws and their effect upon communities; (4) a Department of Preventive Medicine in connection with the Johns Hopkins Hospital, which will apply scientific methods to the study of problems concerning the public health, and to the training of much-needed workers in this important field. It is proposed to complete this fund by February 22, and we feel sure that this new appeal of the University for assistance in the



DR. EDGAR F. SMITH
(New provost of the University of Pennsylvania)

extension of its work will meet with a cordial response from all directions. Several important changes have taken place of late in the administrative personnel of American colleges and universities. Dr. Edgar F. Smith becomes provost of the University of Pennsylvania, succeeding Dr. Charles C. Harrison in that office. The new president of the University of Minnesota is Prof. George E. Vincent, whose portrait appears as the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW.

Consuls
Under the
Merit System

It is interesting to note that a bill has been introduced in the House of Representatives by the Hon. Frank O. Lowden of Illinois, for the improvement of the diplomatic and consular services through the enactment into law of the essential principles of existing executive orders, bringing those services under the merit system, and providing that the qualifications of candidates for appointment to those services be ascertained by impartial examination. This measure simply perfects and makes permanent the improvements already brought about in the foreign service since the passage of the consular reorganization act in 1906. Both President Taft and Secretary Knox are heartily in favor of its passage.

*Progress of
Reciprocity
with Canada*

The results of the negotiations which were carried on last month at Washington between the State Department and the Canadian Ministers of Finance and Customs for a Canadian-American reciprocity agreement have not yet been made public. President Taft hopes, however, to be able to formulate such an agreement in time to submit it to the present Congress before adjournment in March. Following closely upon the visit to Ottawa of the western farmers to demand a reduction of duties upon American agricultural machinery, upon which we commented last month, came the appearance at Ottawa of a delegation of more than a hundred members of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association, which presented a vigorous protest against reciprocity. After good-humoredly asking whether it would be wiser for him to listen to the voice of the farmer or to that of the manufacturer, Sir Wilfrid Laurier gave it as his opinion that the Dominion Government "may find it possible to have some measure of reciprocal trade with our southern neighbor to benefit the farmers who ask for it without injuring the manufacturers who oppose it."

*International
Railroad
Control*

It is expected that with the reciprocity treaty, there will also be submitted to Congress the text of some sort of traffic agreement with Canada to regulate railroad business over the border. We have given the news of the conferences held during the past few months between the Hon. Martin A. Knapp, the Chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the Hon. J. P. Mabee, Chairman of the Board of Railroad Commissioners of Canada, on this subject. Late in December these officials reached the basis of an agreement. The report of Chairman Knapp, concurred in by Chairman Mabee, and presented to the Secretary of State on the last day of December, contains recommendations of such importance to those of our citizens who are interested in trade and travel across the border that we herewith summarize its most important points.

(1) It is quite apparent that the existing laws of the United States and of Canada are inadequate for the effective control of international carriers as respects through rates and the establishment of through routes and other matters which are proper subjects of joint regulation, and that such regulation would be mutually advantageous to the interests of both countries. It is equally plain that the regulation to which international carriers should be subjected is substantially similar to that provided for interstate carriers of the United States.

(2) The proposed treaty provides for a tribunal to

enforce and administer its provisions to be known as the International Commerce Commission and which shall consist of four members, namely, the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the chief commissioner of the Board of Railway Commissioners of Canada for the time being, a member of the Interstate Commerce Commission to be appointed by the President of the United States and a member of the railway commissioners of Canada to be appointed by the Governor General of Canada in council. The powers conferred upon and authority given to this commission in respect of international carriers would correspond to the extent indicated to those exercised by the Interstate Commerce Commission in respect of interstate carriers within the United States. . . . (3) The provisions of such a treaty should apply to telegraph, telephone and express companies, and such companies should be subject as respects their international business to the authority of the International Commerce Commission.

*Other
Canadian
Topics*

The Dominion exercises a rigid and progressive supervision over all the "common carriers" operating within its territory. In this category, Canadians include express companies. Last month the Federal Railway Commission of Canada rendered a sweeping judgment affecting all the express companies doing business in Canadian territory, declaring them all to be overcapitalized. These companies, says the decision further, are merely agencies of the railways, and the earnings of the railways from express traffic, being excessive, should be reduced. The companies are ordered to submit a new tariff within the next three months. The extension of the power of the government at Ottawa over the larger commercial enterprises of the Dominion which have a quasi-public character has been one of the policies strongly advocated by Earl Grey, the present Governor General, who retires this year. He will be succeeded, it is now definitely announced, by the Duke of Connaught, brother of the late King Edward VII. Striking evidence of the growth of the Canadian national spirit as distinct from that of a British colony, although combined with loyalty to the empire, is furnished by the remarkably rapid growth of the so-called Nationalist movement in the province of Quebec. Two of the ablest members of the Dominion Parliament, Mr. Henri Bourassa and Mr. F. D. Monk, are leaders of this movement, the aims and scope of which are set forth in a Leading Article on page 230.

*Details of the
Fisheries
Agreement*

Early last month the commissioners of the United States, Canada and Newfoundland (the last represented by Sir Edward Morris, the Premier) held a long conference at Washington for

the purpose of reaching an agreement regarding certain changes in regulations governing the fisheries in Canadian and Newfoundland waters. Instead of calling upon the commission of experts, appointed under The Hague award, "to determine the reasonableness of certain existing fisheries regulations to which the United States has objected," such "reasonableness" will be settled by direct negotiations between the interested governments.

*The
Insurrection
in Mexico*

A survey of the condition of the countries and peoples bordering on the Caribbean Sea indicates that, in the first weeks of the year 1911, revolution and rebellion against constituted governments and general political and economic unrest are more widespread than for some years past in these countries. The insurrection in Mexico had attained, by the first of the year, almost the proportions of a civil war. The actual fighting has been generally confined to the State of Chihuahua, although outbreaks in other states have been reported. The entire insurrection, however, as we pointed out last month, is directed not so much against the central government as against abuses of local administration. In Chihuahua the present movement is really a protest against the exactions of the state government, which is controlled by certain rich families, holding monopolistic control of the business opportunities, rather than against the Diaz régime at Mexico City. Many exaggerated reports of battles and losses of life have been published. Authoritative statements, however, indicate that the losses up to the present have not exceeded 400. The so-called revolutionists, who have much justification, suffer from lack of a competent leader. Their strength, which is considerable, comes chiefly from their position in the mountainous districts, from which it has hitherto seemed impossible to dislodge them. President Diaz, it is believed, contemplates extensive changes in the administration of Chihuahua. The census of Mexico has just been taken, and it indicates that the population of the republic is now over 15,000,000.

*Is It Revolution
in
Honduras?*

A long threatened insurrection against the Government of Honduras broke out late in December. There seems to be a great deal of opposition to General Davila, now President of the republic. Former President Bonilla headed the uprising, and there was some fighting during the first days of the year, with what result it is not as yet clear. There are evi-

dences that the insurrectionary movement in Honduras has been instigated and encouraged from Guatemala. That republic, according to repeated complaints received at the State Department, has been giving active aid and support to the Bonilla movement. On January 15, the American representative at Guatemala city, by direction of Secretary Knox, made vigorous representations to President Cabrera, of Guatemala, against these alleged violations of the Washington convention (agreed upon by all the Central American Republics in 1907) requiring absolute neutrality in the event of a revolution in a neighboring republic.

*Financing
Honduras and
Guatemala*

After more than a year of negotiations, the proposed loan for the reorganization of the finances of Honduras has been made possible by the convention, signed last month, between Secretary Knox and General Parades, Honduran Minister of Finance, which binds the government at Tegucigalpa to fulfill the obligations of a loan made recently by American financiers. Like most Central American countries, Honduras has ignored her foreign debt for so long that the unpaid interest is now greater than the original debt. The treaty above referred to, which was signed on January 10, virtually guarantees payment, but does not, as was reported in the newspapers at the time, establish a financial protectorate over Honduras such as the United States now exercises over Santo Domingo. Guatemala also is trying to straighten out her finances. Her government is negotiating with certain American financiers for a loan of \$40,000,000 to be used in refunding her foreign debt.

*Nicaragua
Steadying
Herself*

On the first day of the year diplomatic relations were renewed by our State Department with the Government of Nicaragua, thus terminating an official estrangement which has lasted since December 1, 1909. At that date Secretary Knox handed his famous note, criticizing the Zelaya administration, to the Nicaraguan representative at Washington. Mr. Knox stated that the United States Government would not recognize any president until he had been constitutionally elected by the people of Nicaragua. This condition was fulfilled by the election of General Juan Estrada on December 31 by unanimous vote of the Nicaraguan Congress. He is recognized as the legal head of the republic for the regular term of two years. General Estrada, in his first message to the Congress, proposed gradual

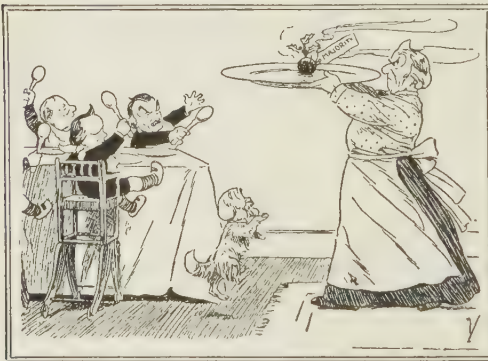
disarmament, public improvements, the development of agriculture, a lower tariff and the negotiation of a foreign loan with the aid of the United States Government.

Costa Rica, Haiti and Cuba Costa Rica also has made an agreement with American financiers for the refunding of her foreign debt of about \$14,000,000. Haiti and Santo Domingo have renewed their old quarrel about a certain tract of land occupied by the former but claimed by the latter. A boundary dispute between these two republics on the same West Indian island is of long standing. Its interest to Americans consists chiefly in the fact that important commercial concessions to American citizens are involved. Both republics, however, have agreed to submit the dispute to "investigation commissions." Despite some mutterings of threatened insurrection in Cuba during the past year, that republic has attained a degree of stability that is very gratifying to the American people and the country in general. President Gomez enters upon the third term of his administration apparently under much better auspices than those which attended his other inaugurations.

Panama, Ecuador, Brazil During the last days of 1910 several efforts were made by the Government of Panama to establish friendly relations between the little isthmian republic and her big neighbor, Colombia, of which she was formerly a constituent state. Dr. Carlos Mendoza, acting as a special commissioner of the Panaman Government, was sent to Bogotá to negotiate a treaty of peace. The Colombian Government, however, has not ceased to (officially) regard Panama as Colombian territory, and

Dr. Mendoza's mission failed. The other South American countries have apparently entered upon the new year peacefully and prosperously. It is true that the boundary dispute between Peru and Ecuador is still unsettled. Peru, however, has agreed to submit the question to The Hague Tribunal for arbitration, and it is expected that Ecuador will follow suit. Early in January General Emilio Estrada was elected President of the latter republic to succeed General Alfaro. He will be inaugurated on August 31 next. The new President of Chile, Dr. Ramón Barros Luco, was inaugurated on December 23. Dr. Luco was elected in October to succeed the Minister of Justice, Señor Figueroa. It will be remembered that in one month, September last, Chile lost both her President, Señor Montt, and her Vice President, Señor Albano. The close commercial connection between the Brazilian Republic and Europe was emphasized several weeks ago by the laying of a new cable connecting Germany with Brazil. The line, which extends from Cologne to the Canary Islands, and thence from Liberia to Pernambuco, Brazil, is subsidized by the Berlin Government, and is expected to be open for business next month.

The Situation in Great Britain The final results of the general election held in Great Britain in December last show that, in the second Parliament of King George, England will be represented by 465 members, of whom 190 are Liberals, 239 Unionists, 35 Laborites and 1 Nationalist; Scotland by 72 members (Liberals 58, Unionists 11, Laborites 3); Wales by 30 members (Liberals 23, Unionists 3, Laborites 4), and Ireland by 103 members (Liberals 1, Unionists 19, Nationalists 75 and independent Nationalists 8). This makes a



'T WAS BUT A LITTLE CHRISTMAS PUDDING THE LIBERALS GOT

MOTHER ASQUITH: "I'm afraid, children, its only a little one this time."

THE SEQUEL (Mr. Redmond still dominates the situation in Parliament)

From the *Daily Express* (London)



MR. CHURCHILL, BRITISH HOME SECRETARY, AT THE "BATTLE OF STEPNEY"

(For the details of this conflict see the paragraphs on this and following pages)

total of 398 in the government coalition against 272 of the opposition. Thus, after a year's campaigning and great political excitement, the balloting shows that the parties in Great Britain remain almost exactly as they were after the preceding election. The Unionists claim that if all the seats had been contested (163 were returned without balloting) the Liberal plurality would have been greatly reduced. On the other hand, the Liberal leaders point to the loss they sustained because of the sudden shelving, just before election, of Tariff Reform, by the adoption of the referendum, and the determined attack made by the Suffragettes on Liberal seats held by very small majorities. Had it not been for these setbacks the Liberals claim they would have greatly increased their majorities in the Commons. They also insist that if plural voting were abolished, the ministry would have had a majority of at least 200.

The Program of Parliament

When Parliament meets, on the first day of the present month, it will proceed at once to put through its measure abolishing the veto power of the Lords. It remains to be seen whether

the Upper House will accept gracefully the consequences of the people's will as expressed at the polls, or whether it will be necessary for the King to create new peers to pass the government measure. 1911 is to be a coronation year. On June 16 the elaborate ceremonies of crowning George V. King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India will take place in London, to be repeated later at the Durbar in Calcutta.

*London
and Her
Anarchists*

No better evidence could be furnished of the nervous state of mind to which our British brethren have been brought by the war talk that has flooded press and platform in the "tight little island" for the past few years than the tragi-comic melodrama enacted last month in the streets of London. Not even the result of the elections, nor the Parliamentary program, not even the impending fate of the House of Lords, nor the imminence of Home Rule for Ireland, absorbed so much of the attention of the British public from "John o' Groat's to Land's End," as did the police struggle with the anarchists, now being referred to as the "Battle of Stepney." The

trouble originated in the middle of December, when three policemen were shot dead and two others wounded in an attempt to arrest a gang of Russian criminals who were found breaking open a jeweler's safe in the squalid district of Whitechapel. One of the criminals was also shot, and from evidence found on him, it was learned, after several weeks' investigation, that in a certain street in Stepney between the business districts of the City and the poverty-stricken region of the East End, there was a small arsenal and a "factory" for manufacturing high explosives.

The "Battle of Stepney" Similar discoveries are of everyday occurrence in Russia, and not unknown in some other countries.

In England, however, the unearthing of this murderer's den created consternation of national proportions. Two anarchists of Russian, or German, origin were found to be hiding in the aforesaid house on Sidney Street, in Stepney. A large body of police surrounded the house, and in a few moments a pitched battle was on between the anarchists, who were well supplied with firearms and ammunition, and the police. The London "bobby" does not carry firearms except under the most extraordinary circumstances, and for a few hours the daring and accurate firing of the beleaguered foe wrought havoc in the police lines and among some of the spectators. Reinforcements were called out, until finally 1,500 police, two half companies of the Scot's Guards, and a battalion of rapid-fire guns from the Royal Horse Artillery were drawn up against the anarchist garrison. The attacking force was further augmented by a corps of nurses, a fire company, the assistant Commissioner of Police and no less a personage than the Hon. Winston Spencer Churchill, the Home Secretary and member of the Imperial Cabinet, besides thousands of spectators, some of whom paid high prices for positions of vantage on neighboring roofs. The five or six hours' combat was terminated with the destruction of the building by fire, in which the anarchists perished.

The Meaning of It All Why all this excitement and fear over a task which, it may be said conservatively, could and would have been performed quietly and effectively by a very small body of police in almost any other city in the world? In the first place, as we have already remarked, despite the fact that many anarchists and other dangerous characters are known to live in London, the police of the British metropolis are not gen-

erally armed. Crimes of violence are comparatively rare in England, and burglars and other law-breakers themselves seldom make use of firearms. The British mind, however, is, and has been for several years, at a very nervous tension over the possibility of a war of invasion, and the mention of a foreigner in a hostile attitude often produces astonishing results. Such a spectacle, however, as London saw on January 3, in one of its most congested quarters, cannot be good for the *morale* of the police or for its prestige among the law-breaking classes. The "Battle of Stepney" and its results is likely to have an important influence on the British Government's future treatment of anarchists, and in its general attitude toward alien immigration. Unlike almost all other European nations, Great Britain has scarcely ever molested reputed anarchists in London, provided they committed no overt acts against the public peace. For this tolerance the British Government has often been severely condemned by other nations who occasionally suffer from the anarchist activity of which London is the center. The coroner's verdict upon the occurrence, rendered January 18, carried a "rider" to the effect that "the event proves the need of more stringent laws regarding the admission of alien criminals into this country."

British Fears of Germany Four other incidents occurring at about the same time bore additional testimony to the apprehension now existing in England, regarding her international security. Early in December, an entertainment was given in the Guildhall, in London, to the officers of the visiting American fleet. On that occasion, Commander W. S. Sims, commanding the battleship *Minnesota*, made an enthusiastic speech in the course of which he said:

In my personal opinion, if the time ever comes when the British Empire is seriously menaced by an external enemy, you may count upon every man, every dollar, every ship, and every drop of blood of your kindred across the seas.

This was, of course, going beyond bounds, no matter how purely personal an opinion it may have been, or how largely it may be shared by his countrymen. A number of German journals and some German-American organizations took umbrage at this as a veiled threat to their fatherland, and for his indiscretion, Commander Sims has been officially reprimanded. The news of the speech, however, reached the British public at about the time Englishmen learned the sentence

passed by the German court upon the two British officers convicted of spying on a German fortress. The two incidents worked upon British sensibilities until press and platform overflowed with anti-German, pro-American enthusiasm.

*What of
Holland and
Belgium?*

Only a few days later the Dutch Government permitted it to be known, in a discreet, semi-official way, that it had decided to expend a large sum of money in erecting a fortress at Flushing, at the mouth of the Scheldt River. Holland owns both banks of the Scheldt at its mouth, and by fortifying these could keep out any ships bound for Antwerp, the Belgian commercial center, less than one hundred miles up the river. This fortification project is regarded in England as having been determined upon at the behest of the German Kaiser. It has been known that the Dutch are almost in a panic over a possible absorption by Germany, and have adopted a policy of conciliation in advance. Antwerp is the seagate of Belgium, and Great Britain is under treaty obligations to defend the realm of King Albert against any outside attack. Therefore, declare the British alarmists, by preventing a British naval force from reaching Antwerp, Holland has played the game of Germany against England. We had something to say last month as to just how definite are German aims and ambitions with regard to Holland and Belgium, quoting from an article by Sir Harry Johnston, in a recent number of the *Nineteenth Century*. The Russo-German agreement over Persia, made public during the first days of the year, acted as further fuel to the flame of British feeling against German ambitions.

*German-
American
Friendship*

Much has been done during recent years to strengthen the official friendship between the American and German governments, and many efforts have been made to make the two peoples understand each other so that the official friendship might gradually find deeper roots in public consciousness. The establishment, some years ago, of the Roosevelt Exchange Professorship at the University of Berlin, and the Kaiser Wilhelm Professorship at Harvard, have permitted the delivery of a number of highly instructive and useful lectures in this country and in Germany, which have concluded greatly toward the promotion of cordial relations. The recent foundation, in the German capital, of the "*Amerika Institut*," for the dissemination among Germans of

correct information about America, and the communication to Americans of correct information about Germany, has been followed by the donation of a large gift to Columbia University for the purpose of founding and equipping a "*Deutsches Haus*." The donor of this fund, Mr. Edward D. Adams, President of the Germanistic Society of America, aims at making the "*Deutsches Haus*" a bureau of information regarding educational institutions and movements in both countries. It is, moreover, to contain a "Germanic Institute" equipped for the study of German history and civilization, under the direction of a competent German scholar. To add to these evidences of mutual goodwill and esteem, we must not forget to record the gift of \$1,250,000, made last month by Mr. Andrew Carnegie as a Hero Fund for Germany, for the purpose of "rewarding acts of valor and self-sacrifice in times of peace."

*Not Endangered
by Speeches,
or Potash*

Our German friends have apparently become so desirous of cultivating our goodwill that many of them, both at home and in this country, deeply resented the fancied slight in the indiscreet speech of Commander Sims's, referred to above. The cruise of the American fleet in December, which included the stay at London, during which this now famous speech was delivered, did not give the warships time to stop at any German port. This fact made the Sims speech seem more objectionable. It is now generally understood that another cruise is being arranged for the coming summer, during which an official visit will be made to German ports. Several German writers, including the well-known economist, Count von Reventlow, have published articles and given interviews expressing the opinion that the fleet's avoidance of German waters might be due to existing economic differences between the United States and Germany, particularly in regard to the potash dispute. Of course, such a statement is too childish to merit any serious attention. The differences between the governments at Washington and Berlin over the question of German restrictions of the trade in potash and its effect upon contracts made by American fertilizer companies are in a fair way to be settled very shortly with satisfaction to both sides of the controversy. The German Government desires to conserve its potash resources. This it has an undoubted right to do. The authorities at Berlin, however, will not deny that the regulations recently imposed upon the potash trade, work a hard-

ship to some American manufacturers of fertilizers. There can be no doubt that these merchants will be accorded fair play and the fulfillment of treaty provisions. In another article, on page 212 this month, we give an outline of the main points of this controversy, as well as supplying some interesting information as to Germany's advantageous position as the world's source of this precious soil constituent, potash.

*The Kaiser's
European
Policies*

On the eighteenth day of last month, with quiet but appropriate ceremonies, the German people commemorated the fortieth anniversary of the proclamation of the new German Empire at Versailles. This is the culmination of a series of celebrations of Prussian victories over France. The ceremonies, however, have been of such a nature and were observed in such a way that no offense has been taken by the French people. At any rate, no public manifestation of displeasure has been recorded. It seems fortunate that, while these German triumphs in war were being commemorated, the imperial authorities at Berlin were completing the arrangements for promulgating a constitution for Alsace-Lorraine, the two provinces conquered from the French in 1871. This new constitution, while it does not grant autonomy to the Alsatians and the Lorrainers, does give them a more dignified and independent status in the imperial family of states.

*Germany's
Game in
the Near East*

While there has not been any diminution of the Anglo-German animosity, during recent weeks the Germans have avoided giving offense to France in a very delicate matter. They believe that, despite temporary setbacks, they have kept intact their friendship with the United States. They have beyond a doubt improved their relationship toward their eastern neighbor. Early last month, there was published in the European press generally, a statement that Germany and Russia had come to a definite agreement regarding their respective interests in Persia, Turkey and Asia Minor. The basis of this agreement was reached, it was said, several months ago, when Czar Nicholas visited Kaiser Wilhelm at Potsdam. The exact character of the agreement has not as yet been made public. It is understood, however, to refer principally to German ambitions in Persia, and to settle definitely Russia's attitude toward the Bagdad Railway. Germany now virtually has a free hand in the Near East, and will undoubtedly

hereafter be a more than interested spectator in the game of diplomacy being played by Russia and England, which has for its apparent object the ultimate dismemberment of Persia.

*Labor Legis-
lation
in France*

The bill recently introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies by the Briand ministry to prevent general strikes in the future is a remarkably statesmanlike and progressive measure. The interruption of public service of any kind, says the report accompanying the measure, is a crime. At the same time, public service employees, like other workers, "have a right to amelioration of their condition." For the purpose of reconciling these two points of view the government bill proposes to give the workers a weapon "as powerful as the strike and yet legal and reasonable." Provision is made for the creation of a "Conciliation Commission," composed of representatives of railroad and other public service companies, as well as the administrative boards of all the government-controlled systems. This commission will meet at regular intervals, and when conciliation fails, resort will be had to compulsory arbitration. The commission is given power, in cases where the decision imposes an additional expense upon the companies, to indicate a method whereby they can secure compensation, either by raising rates or by other means. It is expected that the companies will agree. Whether willing or not, however, "they must accede," because in the words of the report

it is now conceded as a principle of jurisprudence that the State, in conceding public service monopolies, does not waive its right to interfere and compel the concessionaires to grant ameliorations in the interest of public good and the preservation of public order.

The report, in conclusion, reviews arbitration experiments throughout the world, particularly commending those carried on in the United States and in Australia.

*The Success
of
Canalejas*

Premier Canalejas of Spain has secured the enactment into law of the first important item on his program of reform. The so-called "Padlock Bill," which prohibits the establishment of any new religious congregations in Spain for two years, was passed by a large majority in the lower house of the Cortes, on December 23. It had been passed by the Senate a month before. This result, as the Premier himself said in a speech to the parliament, "has been achieved in the nick of time."

The closure of monasteries and convents in Portugal a few months ago had resulted in the settlement in Spain of all, or most, of Portugal's monks and nuns. This great addition to the large increase that followed Spain's loss of her colonies in the war with the United States, and particularly since the expulsion of certain orders from France, greatly complicated the situation facing Señor Canalejas. While it will be impossible to keep out the large numbers of members of the orders already existing in Spain which have come from other countries, the provisions of the "Padlock Bill" will prevent the establishment of any new "congregations" until a definite understanding has been arrived at between the Spanish Government and the authorities at the Vatican. During early January King Alfonso made a trip throughout Spain's "sphere of influence" in Morocco, making several days' stay in Melilla, the outpost of the Spanish army of occupation. It is reported that he was most enthusiastically received by the Spanish forces and accorded unexpectedly cordial treatment by the Moorish government and military officials.

*Problems
of the
New Portugal*

The republican ship of state in Portugal seems to have entered troubled waters. As was to be expected, the provisional government could not begin to satisfy the illiterate populace which had revolted against the abuses of the monarchy. The republican régime has been issuing many proclamations announcing sweeping reforms. The people read these and go on living as before until some fairly definite promise fails of realization, and then, as happened last month, there are strikes and other disorders. The ministry has, as yet, put off calling a republican assembly that might limit its power. It has, however, elaborated a plan of government for a permanent Portuguese republic. This plan is based on the parliamentary system of France, with certain modifications adopted from our own country. According to the ambitious scheme proposed by the provisional cabinet, the President of the Republic will be chosen by Parliament for a term of five years, and will not be eligible for reelection. As in France, the Cabinet is to be appointed by the President "in accord with the political complexion of the legislative body." The Ministers of War, Marine, Finance and Public Works, however, being considered non-political, will continue "irremovable even in the event that the government loses the confidence of Parliament."

*Will there
be a Counter-
Revolution?*

Keen European observers are expecting a counter-revolution at Lisbon before many months. The army and navy, which accomplished the radical change in October last, are disappointed because certain reforms have not yet been carried out. Moreover, the anti-clerical measures of the government have offended the Catholic population. Many of the aristocratic and commercially wealthy classes have emigrated, and this has caused a general depression in business and the appearance of "hard times." Finally, the withdrawal of funds from Portuguese banks by these wealthy *émigrés* to be deposited in Paris or elsewhere, has produced a stringency in the money market, and the government, in order to relieve this, has issued paper currency far in excess of its gold reserve. It will require statesmanship of a high order and patience not usually found among Iberian politicians to pilot the Portuguese ship of state through the troubled waters of the next year.

*How
China
Moves*

The Chinese National Assembly, the first deliberative body in the history of the empire, began its sessions on October 3. It dissolved on January 11, after a rather stormy career marked by frequent clashes with the throne and the Grand Council. While it failed to secure most of the reforms it asked, it did good work in preparing the way for a general parliament in 1913. The Regent refused to create a responsible ministry at once, as was asked, but did advance the date for the summoning of a general parliament. One of the demands of the Assembly was for the promulgation of an imperial edict abolishing the queue. The wording of the demand scornfully spoke of "the pigtail commemorating the subjection of the nation by a race [the Manchus] which is now absorbed by a hardier people." The throne refused this demand. Nevertheless an increasing number of officials and private citizens are parting with their queue. Under modern conditions of life it has been proven unhygienic. Moreover it exposes its wearer to accidents. Curiously enough, the only formulated objection to its abolition has come in the form of petitions from the silk and cotton merchants of Shanghai and Canton, who complain that the new fashion would change the style of dress, and from a number of dealers in artificial human hair, who fear lest the "market" will be flooded with "cheap Chinese goods." It is interesting to note the fact that an American concern (the New York Shipbuilding Company of Camden,

New Jersey, makers of the Dreadnought *Arkansas*, which was launched last month) has just secured a contract for building the first Chinese man-of-war ever laid down in this country. Heretofore England and Japan have built all China's war vessels.

As Seen by an American Observer History is being made rapidly in China these days, so rapidly that the magazine articles and even

the news despatches find it difficult to keep up with the reality. We have recorded the main facts of this progress, from time to time, in these pages and, during the past two years, have printed several illustrated articles prepared by experts on events in the Celestial Empire. In this number we take great pleasure in presenting to our readers a vivid report of progress, prepared, not by an authority on Chinese affairs, but by a keen, alert, observant American editor who has been traveling in the Far East for some months. Mr. Clarence Poe, one of the representative wide-awake leaders of the new South, is editor and proprietor of a number of agricultural journals having a large circulation in the South. He comes at the subject with the fresh, keen, questioning mind of the modern American journalist, and we are confident our readers will find a good deal of instruction and stimulus to further reading in his article "China Awake and at Work" which is found on page 191 this month.

The Contented Filipinos

That the natives of the Philippine Islands are now measurably contented under American rule is made quite plain by the annual report, recently issued, of General Clarence R. Edwards, Chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs. About 11,000 regular troops are garrisoned throughout the islands, but, says General Edwards, "no call upon them has been necessary during the past year or seems likely in the immediate future." Order is maintained by the Philippine Constabulary, that splendid body of native police commanded by American army officers. We have more than once found occasion in these pages to commend the excellent work of this Constabulary. Secretary Dickinson, who recently made an extended tour of the islands, heartily commends this force, not only for its regular service, but for "its auxiliary sanitary work, especially during epidemics." The number of native depositors in the Postal Savings Bank has increased during the past year by almost 100 per cent. According to General Edwards's report there are now 375 miles of

railroad in the Island of Luzon, and the Manila Railroad Company is under contract to lay 400 miles more. Many natives are employed on these roads as agents, clerks, engineers, conductors and mechanics, and they are characterized as "industrious, efficient and responsible." General Edwards refers to what he calls the "filipinization" of the civil service of the Island. He says:

It may be regarded now as an understood rule that wherever an American for any reason quits the service he is to be relieved, so far as is possible with due regard to efficiency, by a Filipino at an equivalent salary so far as the duty itself is concerned, but adjusted to meet the different conditions of living and the difference made necessary on the part of the American employee by service abroad and the long distances necessarily traveled in reaching and returning from his post of duty.

A Decade of Australia

On New Year's day the Commonwealth of Australia attained a larger measure of independence than it has possessed during the preceding ten years of its existence. The Commonwealth was proclaimed at Sydney on January 1, 1901. The Constitution which had been adopted by all the component states: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, West Australia and the Island of Tasmania, provided that, until a permanent site had been chosen for the capital, the Federal government should sit at Melbourne. The capital city, when chosen, "must be in New South Wales, not less than 100 miles from the city of Sydney." Three years ago the Parliament decided that the choice should fall on the district of Yass-Canberra, that the federal reservation should contain not less than 900 square miles and that it should have access to the sea. On January 1, the Yass-Canberra site was approved by the Parliament as the site of the Federal capital, and the bill authorizing the erection of government buildings was passed on the same day. The Constitution also provided that for ten years after the establishment of the Commonwealth, not more than one-quarter of the net revenue from duties and excises should be applied to Federal expenditure. This condition expired on the first day of the present year, and the central government thus acquired complete financial independence of the states. With the present year also the Defense Act requiring compulsory training comes into active operation. During 1911 the central government assumes direct control over the Northern territory, and the present ministry has promised to proceed without delay to the survey of the much needed transcontinental railway.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From December 20, 1910, to January 19, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

December 20.—The Senate passes the Omnibus Claims bill (\$2,000,000)... The House considers the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial appropriation bill.

December 21.—The Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections reports that the charges of bribery in connection with the election of Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) have not been sustained.

January 5.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess.

January 7.—The House considers the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial appropriation bill.

January 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Beveridge (Rep., Ind.) presents the minority report of the Committee on Privileges and Elections, declaring that Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) was not legally elected to the Senate of the United States... The House, by vote of 222 to 53, reverses its position on a question of rules similar to that of last March.

January 10.—In the Senate, Mr. Crawford (Rep., S. D.) charges that Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) knew of fraud in connection with his election... The House passes the Sulloway Pension bill, which adds \$45,000,000 annually to the pension roll.

January 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.) explains his Postal Subvention bill; Mr. Borah (Rep., Id.) presents the report of the Committee on Judiciary in favor of a Constitutional amendment providing for the election of Senators by direct vote of the people.

January 12.—The House passes the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial appropriation bill (\$35,000,000).

January 13-14.—The House considers the Army appropriation bill.

January 16.—In the House, a combination of "insurgent" Republicans and Democrats overrules a decision of the Speaker.

January 17.—The Senate debates the Postal Subvention bill... The House passes the Army appropriation bill (\$93,000,000).

January 18.—In the Senate, Mr. Burrows (Rep., Mich.) defends the committee report on the Lorimer investigation, Mr. Borah (Rep., Id.) attacking it... The House debates the Moon bill for codifying laws relating to the judiciary.

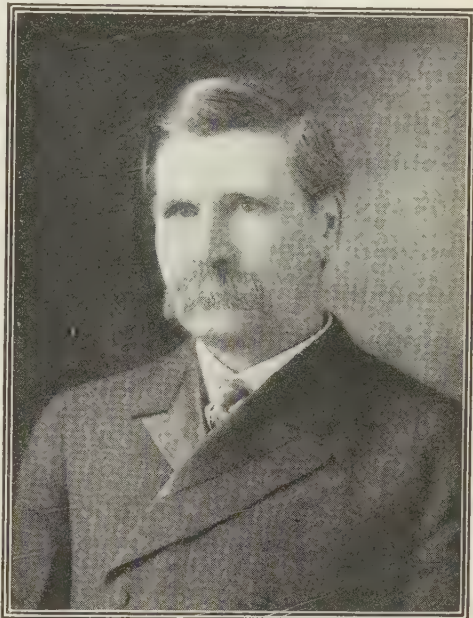
January 19.—In the Senate, Mr. Borah (Rep., Id.) speaks in favor of the popular election of United States Senators.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

December 20.—A petition for the "recall" of Mayor Gill, of Seattle, Wash., under the provisions of the city charter, is signed by more than 11,000 voters.

December 24.—The American Sugar Refining Company agrees to refund to the Government drawbacks amounting to \$700,000.

December 26.—President Taft approves the expenditure of \$20,000,000 for reclamation work in the West.



SENATOR-ELECT A. J. GRONNA, OF NORTH DAKOTA
(Representative Gronna has been chosen by the Legislature to fill the unexpired term of the late Senator Johnson)

December 27.—A civil suit against the Beef Trust in the federal court at Chicago is withdrawn in order that criminal proceedings may be instituted.

January 2.—The Iowa Railroad Commission orders a reduction in express rates of from 5 to 20 per cent.

January 3.—The United States Supreme Court dismisses the Government's Panama-Canal libel suit against the New York World.

January 4.—The Government brings action under the Sherman law to dissolve the Atlantic steamship combine.

January 7.—It is announced that Oscar S. Straus has resigned as ambassador to Turkey; W. W. Rockill is appointed to succeed him.

January 8.—Governor Glasscock, of West Virginia, appoints Davis Elkins to succeed his father in the United States Senate until the Legislature elects a successor.

January 9.—The reargument of the Government's suit to dissolve the Tobacco Trust is begun in the United States Supreme Court.

January 10.—Lieut.-Gov. Atlee Pomerene (Dem.) is chosen United States Senator from Ohio... The California Legislature elects Judge John D. Works (Rep.) United States Senator... The Florida Senatorial primary fails to give any candidate the necessary majority... President Taft orders that Commander Sims, U. S. N., be publicly reprimanded for indiscreet remarks during a recent speech in London... The city of

Boston, by vote of 36,855 to 17,420, declares in favor of license.

January 12.—President Taft, in a special message to Congress, asks for \$5,000,000 to begin the work of fortifying the Panama Canal. . . . The Government's suit to dissolve the Standard Oil monopoly is brought up for reargument before the United States Supreme Court.

January 17.—Charles F. Johnson (Dem.) is chosen by the Maine Legislature to succeed Mr. Hale (Rep.) in the United States Senate. . . . James A. Reed (Dem.) is elected United States Senator from Missouri, succeeding Mr. Warner (Rep.). . . . Both houses of the Connecticut Legislature choose ex-Gov. George P. McLean (Rep.) as United States Senator. . . . Gilbert M. Hitchcock (Dem.) is chosen United States Senator from Nebraska. . . . The North Dakota Legislature reelects Porter J. McCumber (Rep.) and chooses A. J. Gronna (Rep.) to serve for the unexpired term of the late Senator Johnson. . . . Moses E. Clapp (Rep., Minn.) and George A. Sutherland (Rep., Utah) are reelected to the United States Senate. . . . Senator Aldrich's plan for financial reform is made public by the National Monetary Commission.

January 18.—The Rhode Island Legislature elects Henry F. Lippitt (Rep.) United States Senator. . . . Charles E. Townsend (Rep.), who defeated Senator Burrows in the Republican primary, is elected to the United States Senate by the Michigan Legislature. . . . The Washington Legislature elects Miles Poindexter (Rep.) United States Senator. . . . John W. Kern (Dem.) is chosen by the Indiana Legislature to succeed Senator Beveridge (Rep.). . . . Henry Cabot Lodge (Rep., Mass.) and John H. Bankhead (Dem., Ala.) are reelected to the United States Senate.

January 19.—The New York Legislature, after three days' balloting, fails to elect a Democrat to succeed Mr. Depew (Rep.) in the United States Senate. . . . At a caucus of the Democratic members of the next House of Representatives, Champ Clark, of Missouri, is nominated for Speaker; the power of appointing committees is conferred upon the Ways and Means Committee. . . . The proposed income-tax amendment to the Constitution is ratified by the legislatures of Kansas and Ohio.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

December 20.—The French Chamber of Deputies endorses the Government's attitude in the railway strike.

December 22.—The French Government plans to prevent strikes among public-service utilities by means of compulsory arbitration.

December 23.—The Spanish Chamber passes the "padlock" bill, prohibiting for two years the creation of further religious orders. . . . Ramon B. Luco is inaugurated President of Chile.

December 24.—The Chinese provincial leaders agitating at Peking the immediate convocation of a general parliament are ordered home by the throne. (See page 191.)

January 1.—Gen. Juan Estrada is inaugurated President of Nicaragua. . . . King Alfonso renews his confidence in the ministry; Premier Canalejas appoints three new members to his cabinet.

January 7.—Prince Albert of Monaco establishes a constitutional form of government for his principality.

January 10.—Manuel E. Araujo is elected President of Salvador. . . . Henri Brisson, Radical Socialist, is reelected president of the French Chamber of Deputies.

January 11.—The Chinese National Assembly is dissolved. . . . Emilio Estrada is elected President of Ecuador. . . . More than twenty men are killed in a fight between Mexican soldiers and a band of insurgents at a point on the Rio Grande opposite Comstock, Texas.

January 17.—Two shots are fired at Premier Briand by a madman in the French Chamber, one of them striking M. Mirmam, Director of Public Relief.

January 18.—Twenty-four Japanese anarchists (one of them a woman) are condemned to death for conspiracy to kill the Crown Prince; twelve of the sentences are later commuted to life imprisonment.

January 19.—The Paraguayan congress accepts the resignation of President Gondra and elects Colonel Jara to succeed him.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

December 22.—Two officers of the British army are convicted at Leipsic and sentenced to four years imprisonment for spying on German fortifications.

December 23.—The Emperor of Japan, opening the Diet, emphasizes the necessity of maintaining peace.

December 31.—President Taft authorizes the formal recognition of the new government in Nicaragua. . . . An agreement between the United States and Canada, for an international railway commission to regulate rates, is made public at Washington.

January 7.—Reciprocity negotiations between officials of the United States and Canada are renewed at Washington.

January 10.—Secretary of State Knox and the Honduran Minister of Finance conclude a treaty by which the United States guarantees a loan to Honduras without assuming a financial protectorate.

January 14.—The State Department announces that complete agreement with Canada over the fisheries question has been reached.

January 15.—The United States protests to Guatemala against alleged support to the revolutionary movement in Honduras.

January 17.—Haiti and Santo Domingo sign a convention of peace, withdrawing troops from the frontier.

January 18.—Colombian troops cross the border into Peruvian territory.

AERONAUTICS

December 26.—Arch Hoxsey, in a Wright biplane, establishes a new height record of 11,474 feet at Los Angeles.

December 29.—At an altitude of 10,000 feet, Arch Hoxsey flies over Mount Wilson.

December 30.—In competition for the Michelin Cup in France, Maurice Tabuteau (using a Farman biplane) covers 365 miles in 7 hours and 48 minutes.

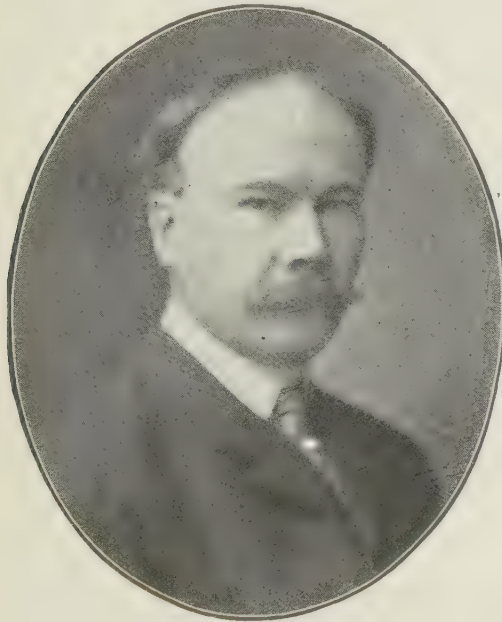
December 31.—Two of the world's foremost aviators are killed following accidents to their

machines; Arch Hoxsey falls from a height of 500 feet as Los Angeles, and John B. Moisant falls from his machine while 100 feet in the air at New Orleans.

January 18.—Eugene B. Ely flies in a Curtiss biplane from the aviation field near San Francisco to the deck of the cruiser *Pennsylvania*, thirteen miles distant, and afterward makes the return trip.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

December 20.—John D. Rockefeller makes a final gift of \$10,000,000 to the University of Chicago. . . . Burley tobacco growers from five States meet at Lexington, Ky., and agree to pool the 1911 crop and raise none in 1912.



THE LATE PAUL MORTON

(President of the Equitable Assurance Society; Secretary of the Navy in President Roosevelt's administration. Mr. Morton died suddenly of apoplexy on January 19)

December 21.—Fire destroys a business block in Cincinnati, causing the death of three persons and a property loss of \$2,500,000. . . . An explosion in a coal mine near Bolton, England, kills 360 workmen.

December 22.—Fire Marshal Horan, of Chicago, and twenty-three of his men, lose their lives during a fire in the stockyards. . . . Fourteen men are killed and forty injured in a factory fire at Philadelphia. . . . The *Mauretania*, arriving at Fishguard, Wales, completes a round trip across the Atlantic in twelve days.

December 24.—Twenty-seven persons are killed in a train wreck at Kirkby-Stephen, northern England.

December 27.—A majority of the railway employees in Italy vote in favor of a strike. . . . The Northern Bank of New York City, with nine branches and deposits of nearly \$7,000,000, is closed by the State banking officials.

December 29.—Joseph G. Robin, of New York

City, is indicted for fraud in connection with the closing of the Northern Bank.

December 31.—It is announced from Berlin that Andrew Carnegie has given \$1,250,000 for the establishment of a hero fund in Germany.

January 3.—In an attempt to arrest several alleged anarchists in London, 1500 police and soldiers take active part; the building in which they were hidden caught fire and the men are burned to death.

January 4.—The candidacy of Mme. Curie for membership in the French Academy of Sciences causes the Institute of France to declare against the admission of women to membership. . . . James J. Gallagher, who attempted to assassinate Mayor Gaynor of New York City, is sentenced to twelve years in prison as a consequence of one of the shots injuring a bystander. . . . The Washington-Alaska Bank, of Fairbanks, the largest banking institution in Alaska, closes its doors.

January 5.—Fifteen persons are killed and two-score injured in a railroad wreck in Cape Colony. . . . White burley tobacco growers representing three States meet at Lexington, Ky., and agree to plant no crop in 1911. . . . A dormitory of one of the Moody schools at East Northfield, Mass., is destroyed by fire, the loss amounting to \$100,000.

January 6.—The plant of the Minneapolis General Electric Company is wrecked by a series of explosions, causing \$500,000 damage. . . . President Taft refuses to commute the sentence of a manufacturer convicted of violating the Florida peonage law.

January 7.—The Carnegie Trust Company, of New York City, is closed by State banking officials.

January 8.—Mobs in Lisbon, Portugal, wreck the offices of three Monarchist newspapers; troops are called out to restore order. . . . The electric and telephone plant of Santiago, Chile, is destroyed by fire, the loss amounting to \$2,000,000.

January 10.—James A. Farrell is elected president of the United States Steel Corporation. . . . Three coal barges are sunk off Cape Cod during a storm, seventeen of the crews losing their lives.

January 11.—The majority of the railroad employees in Portugal strike for shorter hours.

January 12.—An earthquake at Vyerny, Asiatic Russia, is believed to have caused the death of more than 250 persons.

January 13.—The bursting of a large reservoir near Huelva, Spain, causes the death of eleven persons and the flooding of many miles of territory.

January 14.—The battleship *Arkansas* is launched at Camden, N. J. . . . The Portuguese railway strikers accept concessions made by the employers.

January 17.—Eight men in the boiler room of the battleship *Delaware* are killed by an explosion.

OBITUARY

December 20.—Seymour J. Guy, of New York, a well-known portrait painter, 86.

December 21.—James V. Watson, a prominent Philadelphia financier, 93.

December 23.—Ex-Congressman Alphonso Hart, of Ohio, 80. . . . Samuel S. Dickinson, general superintendent and vice-president of the Commercial Cable Company, 58. . . . Gen. Pierre M. F. Frederique, the Haitian journalist and statesman, 44.



BENN PITMAN

(The venerable exponent of the art of shorthand writing, who died in Cincinnati late in December)

December 24.—Count Franz Karl Wolfgang von Ballestrem, formerly president of the German Reichstag, 76. . . . Rev. Samuel Martin, D. D., a pioneer American missionary in India, 74. . . . Joseph Friedenwald, a prominent merchant and public-spirited citizen of Baltimore, 83. . . . Commodore Perry Vedder, formerly active in New York State Republican politics, 72.

December 25.—Dr. Adams Sherman Hill, professor emeritus of rhetoric and oratory at Harvard, 77. . . . Ex-Congressman John D. Young, of Kentucky, 78.

December 26.—William Coutie, a well-known scientific writer, 91. . . . Brig.-Gen. W. W. H. Davis, U. S. A., retired, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 90. . . . Major William P. Huxford, U. S. A., retired, recorder of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion, 66. . . . Dr. Clara A. Swain, of Rochester, N. Y., the first woman sent as a medical missionary to the Orient, 76.

December 27.—Green McCurtain, chief of the Choctaw nation, 62. . . . Pentland ("Frank") Worthing, the actor, 43. . . . Herman Brandt, the well-known New York violinist, 68.

December 28.—Benn Pitman, a pioneer shorthand reporter, 88. . . . John W. Ellis, of New York, formerly a prominent financier, 93.

December 29.—Aaron Homer Byington, war correspondent during the Rebellion and at one time publisher of the New York *Sun*, 84. . . . Prof. Samuel Henry Butcher, M. P., of Cambridge University, an authority on Greek, 60.

December 30.—Clarence Lexow, who conducted the legislative investigation of 1894 into New York City police corruption, 58.

December 31.—John Corson Smith, of Chicago, a well-known Mason and author of several volumes of Masonic history, 78.

January 1.—Brig.-Gen. John J. Curtin, U. S. A.,

retired, a veteran of the Civil War, 72. . . . Miss Julia Arabella Eastman, founder of the Dana Hall School for Girls at Wellesley and author of children's books, 74. . . . M. Karaulov, an influential Jewish member of the Russian Duma.

January 2.—Prof. Joseph Uphues, the German sculptor, 60.

January 3.—William T. Wardwell, a former treasurer of the Standard Oil Company and a well-known Prohibitionist, 83. . . . Frederick Bonner, at one time proprietor and editor of the New York *Ledger*, 54. . . . Rev. Dr. Daniel W. Faunce, author of religious works, 82.

January 4.—Stephen B. Elkins, United States Senator from West Virginia and Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Harrison, 69. . . . Francois la Moriniere, the Belgian landscape painter, 82. . . . Commodore Alexander McCrackin, U. S. N. retired, 70.

January 5.—Justice Edward B. Whitney, of the New York State Supreme Court, 53. . . . Cardinal Francesco Segna, 74.

January 6.—Sir John Aird, builder of the Assouan Dam, 77. . . . Rev. Dr. Samuel A. Ort, the well-known Lutheran minister and educator of Springfield, Ohio, 67. . . . Sister Isidore, of New Orleans, known as the "Angel of the Poor," 85.

January 7.—Edward Allen Perry, of Boston, well known as a journalist in both England and America, 64.

January 8.—George P. Rainey, formerly chief justice of the Florida Supreme Court, 65. . . . Dr. Darwin Colvin, a prominent surgeon of northern New York, 88.

January 9.—William Whiting, the paper manufacturer and former member of Congress from Massachusetts, 69. . . . Brig.-Gen. Edgar S. Dudley, U. S. A., retired, 66. . . . Robert Davis, a prominent Democratic leader of New Jersey, 62.

January 10.—Henry C. Pitney, formerly vice-chancellor of New Jersey. . . . Buenaventura Correo, ex-President of Panama, 80.

January 11.—United States Senator Charles J. Hughes, of Colorado, 57. . . . Ex-Surgeon-General William Grier, U. S. N., 94.

January 12.—Samuel Montagu (Baron Swaythling), head of the prominent London banking house, 78. . . . Henry Burr Barnes, the New York publisher, 65.

January 13.—Gen. Ferdinand C. Latrobe, seven times mayor of Baltimore, 77. . . . Dr. Charles J. Kipp, of Newark, N. J., an authority on eye and ear diseases, 72.

January 14.—Gen. George Brown Danby, U. S. A., retired, 81.

January 15.—Ex-Congressman C. J. Erdman, of Pennsylvania, author of the Erdman act, which applies to arbitration in labor disputes, 64.

January 17.—Sir Francis Galton, the noted English explorer and author, 89. . . . George Johnson, former chief statistician of Canada, 75. . . . Surrogate Abner C. Thomas, of New York, 67.

January 18.—Rt. Rev. William Paret, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Maryland, 85. . . . Bishop Alexander H. Vinton, of the P. E. Diocese of Western Massachusetts, 58. . . . Peter K. Dederick, a New York inventor, 73.

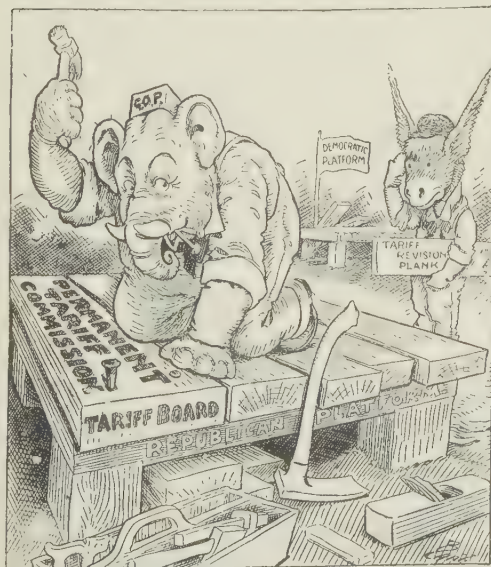
January 19.—Paul Morton, president of the Equitable Life Assurance Society and Secretary of the Navy in Mr. Roosevelt's cabinet, 54.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



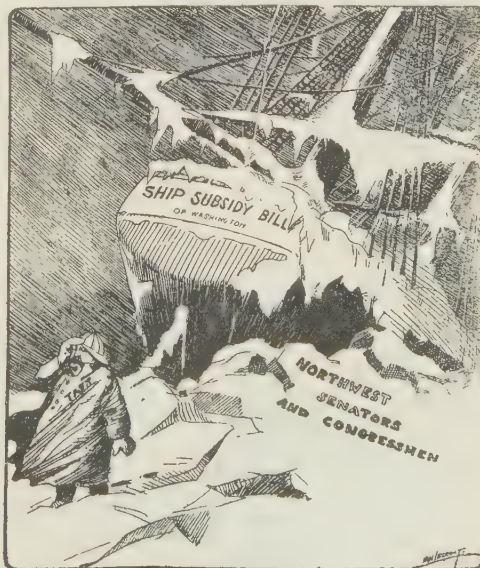
GOOD WORK

(Reciprocity negotiations between our State Department and the Canadian Government progressed hopefully last month)
From the *Journal* (Detroit)



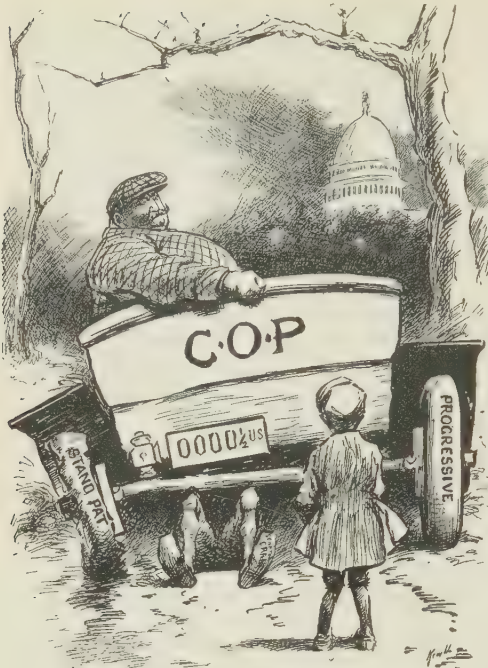
NAILING DOWN ONE PLANK

(Referring to the effort to frame legislation for a permanent
Tariff Commission before the close of the present Congress)
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



ICEBOUND

(The passage of the good ship "Subsidy Bill" blocked by
opposition ice in Congress)
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul)



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"SAY, BOSS, WHY DON'T YER HUNCH OVER A LITTLE TO DE ODDER SIDE? DEN DE MACHINE WILL RUN BETTER"

From Harper's Weekly (New York)

Mr. Kemble's suggestion in the cartoon above that the "Boss" lean over a little more to the "Progressive" side of the machine seems to be in line with the President's own



WON'T TRUST THE LOAD TO THE MULE
—Lucky mule to escape the responsibility
From the Press (Philadelphia)

idea and recent actions. The newspaper announcement that Mr. Taft would seek a renomination has resulted in a number of cartoons, two of which we reproduce below. The tariff revision cartoon on this page makes the point that, although the Democratic party gained its success last fall on that issue, it seems likely to escape the responsibility of a new revision by reason of the creation of a tariff board.



IT LOOKS AS IF HE WAS GOING TO TRY THE BUMP
From the News-Tribune (Duluth)



OH, JOY!
From the Record (Fort Worth)



HIS SWAN SONG

From the *World-Herald* (Omaha)

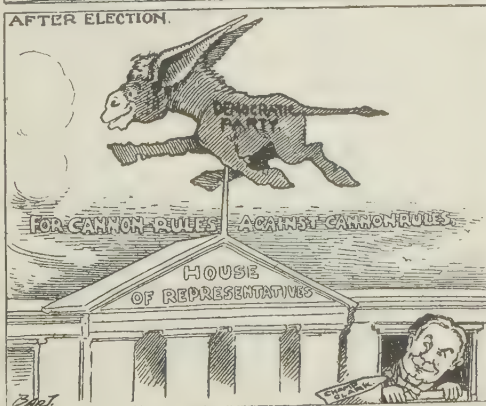
Little more than a month of life now remains for the Republican majority in Congress—hence the Elephant's "swan song." With the prospect of soon coming into power, the present Democratic minority seems to have softened somewhat its antagonism to the famous Cannon rules. The election by the Democratic caucus last month of Mr. Champ Clark as Speaker of the next Congress gives point to the cartoonist's question "What will he do with it?" In the lower right hand corner of the page Mr. Bryan is seen scrutinizing various Democratic Presidential possibilities to see whether they have the Bryan brand.



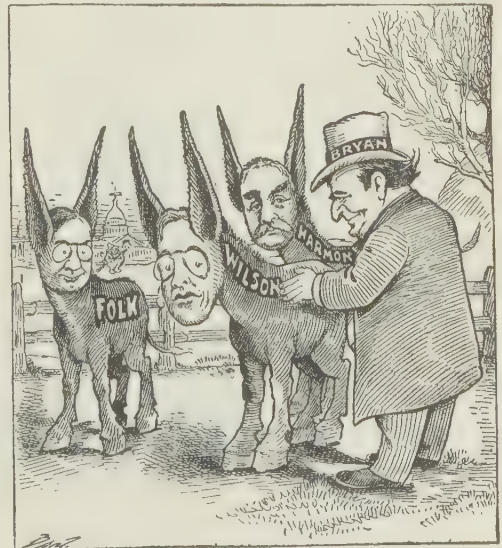
SMOKING OUT THE COON—"SPECIAL PRIVILEGE"
From *La Follette's Weekly* (Madison)



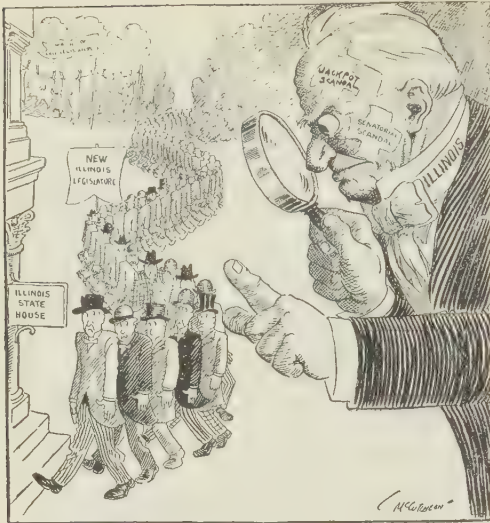
CHAMP CLARK AND THE DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP
What will he do with it?
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



THE POLITICAL WEATHER-VANE
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



HAVE THEY THE BRYAN BRAND?
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



ILLINOIS TO THE STATE LEGISLATURE

"Walk straight, gentlemen! No more disgraceful performances!"

From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

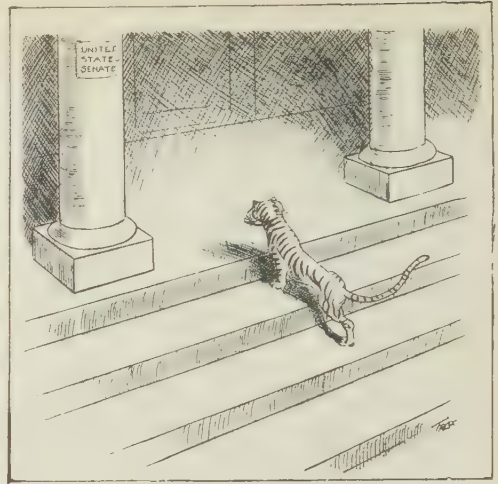
The State of Illinois, remembering the recent scandals connected with the State Legislature, admonishes the new body of gentlemen in the State House to "walk straight." An interesting article on the situation in Adams County, Ohio, referred to in the cartoon below, will be found on page 171 of this issue. Senatorial elections in various States last month, together with the Lorimer case, did much to strengthen public sentiment for the direct election of United States Senators.



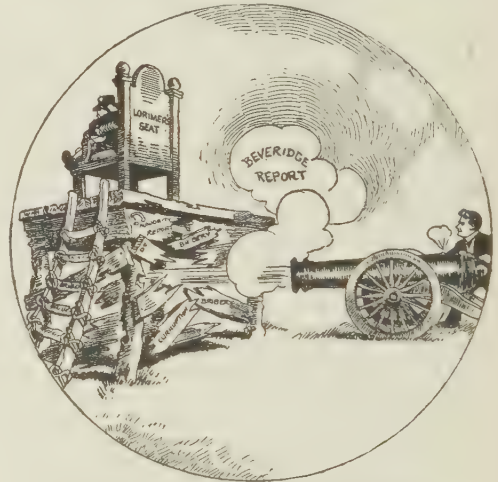
IN ADAMS COUNTY, OHIO

"Worrying about your disfranchisement, Ezzy?"
"No; but I'm eternally disgraced. They served a warrant on me."

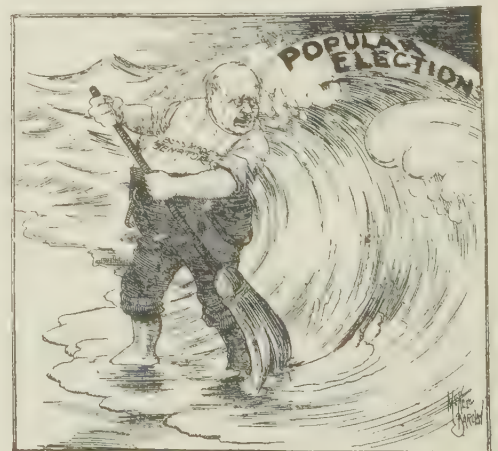
From the *Tribune* (New York)



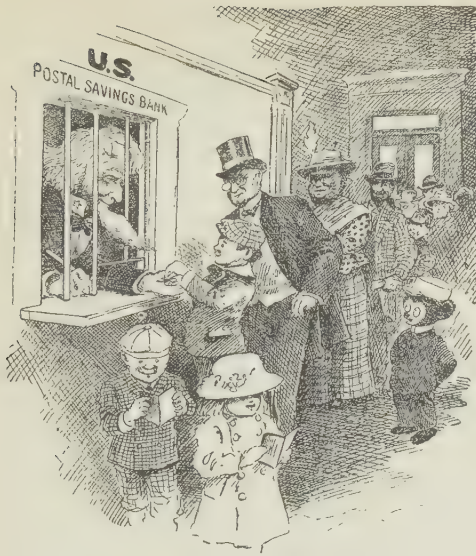
REPRESENTING THE EMPIRE STATE (TAMMANY)
From the *Press* (New York)



BEVERIDGE RIDDLING THE SUPPORT
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



A HOPELESS EFFORT
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)

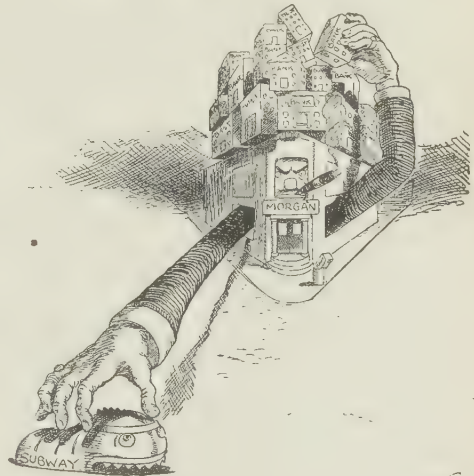


UNCLE SAM, THE NEW BANKER
From the *Daily Bee* (Omaha)

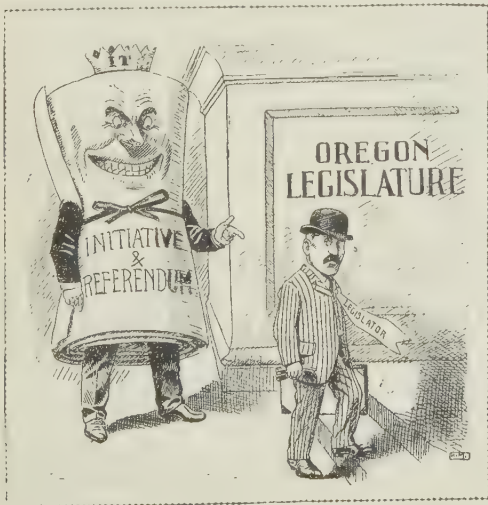
Uncle Sam's operations as a banker for the people in the new postal savings banks will be watched with much interest. The recent acquisition of several banking institutions by Mr. J. P. Morgan, inspires the cartoonist with the suggestion that perhaps the Subway system will be the next thing to be annexed. With the Standard Oil case now pending before the Supreme Court, the question whether the oil trust will go to pieces on the shore of the Sherman anti-trust law is very much in the public mind. In the opinion of the cartoonist, the much discussed "Oregon system" of government leaves the legislator little to do.



A DANGEROUS SHORE
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



NEXT!
From the *World* (New York)



WHERE THE PEOPLE RULE!
"Reckon you won't find much left to do in there, my friend."
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)



THE CONTROVERSY ENDS
(Government experts have reported that Commander Peary came very close to the Pole)
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE LAMAR, OF THE SUPREME COURT

BY JAMES H. BLOUNT

WHEN the Standard Oil Company, the most gigantic aggregation of private capital the world ever saw, is about to go on trial for its life, upon a motion made by the Government to dissolve it, before the high court which American patriotism delights to call "the greatest tribunal on earth," the personality of a newly appointed member of that court must necessarily be a matter of some interest to the general public.

The opinion of the new judge may control the decision of the court in the case, in the event the court should be divided. Four and four being eight, the Standard's life and its billions may depend upon the opinion of the ninth man. And, seeing that the ninth man, whichever of the nine he might be, can neither be bought by Standard Oil nor swayed against it by political stump speeches of amateur lawyers, all is still well with the Republic.

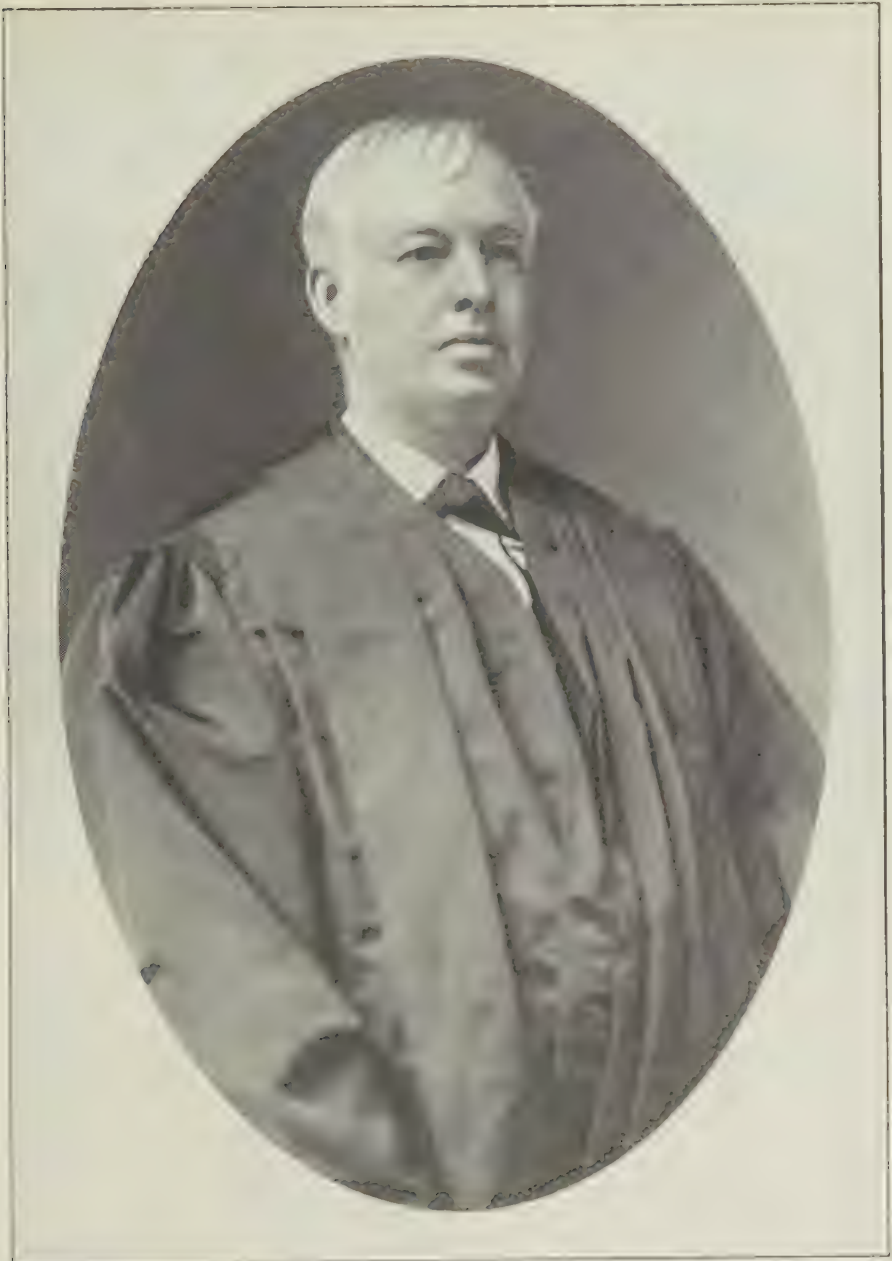
Imagine a scholarly jurist, combining something of the captivating modesty of William Dean Howells with the judicial acumen of Alton B. Parker, the purity in private life of William McKinley, and the integrity of Grover Cleveland, and you have data concerning the personal equation of Joseph Rucker Lamar, the new Associate Justice, which even the halting voice of dazzled envy would scarce gainsay.

"There is a tradition among the Lamars of Georgia," says a biographer of the new justice's famous kinsman and predecessor on the Supreme Bench, Justice L. Q. C. Lamar (who, it may be recalled in passing, before he consecrated his life to the bench, had previously served, like Chief Justice White, in the Senate, like Judges Day and Moody in the Cabinet, and, like the last named, in the House of Representatives), "that their family was of Huguenot origin . . . and fled from France in the celebrated exodus consequent upon the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685." However that may be, their history is as much an integral part of the history of Georgia as is that of the Adamses of Massachusetts, or that of the Bayards of Delaware. The opening years of the last century found Judge L. Q. C. Lamar, 1st, father of the L. Q. C. above, engaged, as was the sub-

ject of this article, in its closing years, in revising the statutes of the State; the early Georgia Reports (Dudley's) contain some luminous decisions of his, just as those of nearly one hundred years later contain some masterpieces by the subject hereof; and the resolutions of the bar of Baldwin Superior Court upon the occasion of his death contain a description which would quite fit the living judge: "His candor, ingenuousness and modesty were no less conspicuous than his amenity and kindness to all in any way connected with the administration of justice." Mirabeau B. Lamar, his brother, uncle of Supreme Court Justice L. Q. C., emigrated early from Georgia to Texas, led the cavalry charge that broke the Mexican line at the battle of San Jacinto, and later became President of the Republic of Texas. But that is another story. We can but glance back for a moment at the illustrious dead in passing to a nearer study of the living.

Joseph Rucker Lamar was born in Georgia on October 14, 1857; educated, after the "three R's" period, at the University of Georgia, Bethany College, Bethany, W. Va., and Washington and Lee University; married in 1880; served in the Georgia Legislature, 1886-89, as Commissioner to revise the Code, in 1895, and as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the State, 1903-5, resigning to resume the practice of law. Add that, except as above indicated, he has been continuously engaged in the practice of law in Augusta, Ga., for the last thirty years or so, and you have the whole story of his objective life.

It was through his service in the Legislature that Judge Lamar first became well and favorably known to the people of the State. The Georgia Legislature is quite a respectable institution comparatively. The members used to log-roll to elect judges and prosecuting attorneys, but the only evil in that was that it made them a close corporation, so the people put a stop to the system by resuming the delegated power of selecting those functionaries. They also used to take railroad passes before the passing of the pass; but they do not have "jackpots" at the end of the session for division among the faithful,



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JUSTICE JOSEPH R. LAMAR, OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT

nor do they even waive the constitution "between friends," and with them, a man might as well be a coward as to be a crook. In the legislatures of 1886-89 Judge Lamar did yeoman service in bringing Georgia pleading and practice abreast of the times by various reforms in judicial procedure. What is known in Georgia as the Uniform Procedure Act of 1887 consolidated law and equity pleading and put the State in line with the constructive legislation of the age, which pays less attention to "the science of statement" and more to the "substance of right." So that when he returned to the practice, "Joe" Lamar, as he was then widely known with respect and affection, had a circle of friends among the leading men in every county of the State, who knew him then, as

the whole State has since, and the nation will soon, to be a man of conspicuous probity, splendid intellect, and immense capacity for labor.

Six years after Judge Lamar retired from the Legislature, the time rolled round for the periodical revision of the State laws, which occurs in Georgia every ten or fifteen years. The suggestion of his name as one of the Commissioners to revise the Code was received with very general satisfaction, and along with two older and (then) more distinguished lawyers, he was appointed by the Governor a member of the Code Commission of 1895. It was as one of the secretaries to that Commission that the writer first had the good fortune to know the new justice, and it is because he remembers his connection with the labors of that Commission as one of the most agreeable and improving of his life and the association with Judge Lamar as especially elevating and helpful, then and ever since, that these lines are submitted by way of appreciation of him.

Justice Lamar's appointment by Gov. J. M. Terrell (who is now United States Senator from Georgia) to the Supreme Court of the State in 1903, was of course received with that general approval which naturally follows the appointment of such a man, and his subsequent service in that court has added materially to the unquestionably high standing it already had with the bar of the country.

He resigned in 1905 and resumed the practice of law in Augusta, where he probably would be still if the midwinter charms of that lovely Southern city had not attracted the presence of the President, who met him there and conceived for him the same high respect and regard that has long been entertained by the people of Georgia, as well as by all other distinguished visitors from the North who have happened to discover him on his native heath.

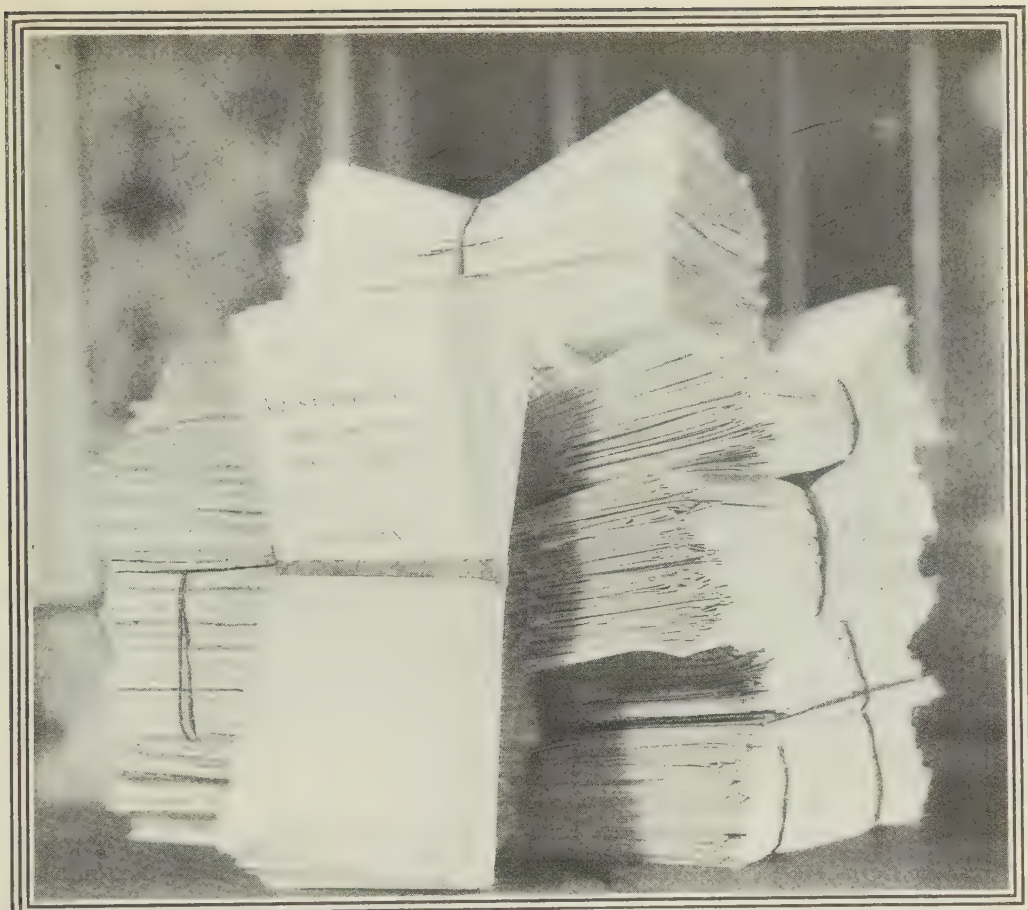
An incident which occurred in 1902, before he went on the Supreme Court of the State, is well worthy, at this juncture, of the serious consideration of thoughtful men. Mr. Lamar had accepted an invitation to deliver the memorial address over the graves of the Confederate dead at Athens, Ga. He took no press agent along, being exceptionally free from the habit, but he made it an occasion for talking in neighborly fashion to his own people about the race question, and how the dead, if they could only come back, would have us handle it. An educational conference happened to be on in Athens at the time, and a number of prominent Northern men, Mr. George Peabody, Dr. Albert Shaw,

editor of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, and others who were there to attend it, went to hear the speech. So impressed were they that they afterward asked the speaker's permission to reproduce it on their return to the North for general distribution. Let Dr. Shaw tell some of their impressions in his own words, as he does in the preface to the pamphlet reproducing the speech:

The speaker was a man who bears a name distinguished in the annals of the South and of the nation. . . . He views the race question seriously, but without pessimism, and in the true perspective . . . and he touches the very root of remedial policy when he points out the duty of the South to improve the status of the negro race on the agricultural and industrial side as preliminary to the ultimate success of universal education and effective school training.

Said Judge Lamar, among other things, in this address: "The time must come—I think it is rapidly coming—when we shall receive the sympathy of the entire nation in our effort to deal with this issue. . . . He (the negro) can only be elevated by education—not the mere education of books, but the education that comes from contact with the superior mind." And farther on in the speech, he adjures the white landowner of the South, by the sacred memory of the dead and his duty to himself and his family, that he is "bound to assist his tenant with instructions and kindly advice; bound to see that the land which he received as an inheritance from his father shall be transmitted as a heritage of equal value to his children. . . . the tenant improving his own condition and that of the land." The keynote is intensive farming and industrial education, for the mutual benefit of both races and the uplift of the weaker. "Here," said he, "is a homely solution of the race problem. . . . It will elevate the negro and multiply the resources of the land. It will tend to wipe out the stain of illiteracy, etc." Says Dr. Shaw, in concluding his foreword to the Northern reprint: "To approach our great problems of American life and society, whether Northern or Southern, Eastern or Western, urban or rural, in the light of patriotic duty and in the broad-minded spirit of this address of Mr. Lamar's, is to do our share toward the fulfillment of a true national destiny."

Since that time the Northern millionaire philanthropists and statesmen Messrs. Carnegie, Rockefeller, Taft, and the rest, have been more and more directing their endeavors for the uplift of the negro in the South along the broad lines of Judge Lamar's speech, through the Moses of their race, Dr. Booker T. Washington.



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SHEAVES OF INDICTMENTS FOUND IN ADAMS COUNTY AGAINST CITIZENS WHO SOLD THEIR VOTES LAST NOVEMBER

(The pictures for this article were taken for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS by a representative of the American Press Association, through the courtesy of Judge Blair, with whom it was agreed that no snapshots of incriminated men should be taken without their consent. There has been no desire to present anybody in the aspect of lawbreaker or culprit)

A NATIONAL LESSON FROM ADAMS COUNTY

BY ALBERT SHAW

A COUNTRY lawyer of courage and sagacity, serving as a local judge in southern Ohio, is now setting this country an example in methods of political reform that will give his name an enduring place in the annals of our great American experiment of self-government. By many different means,—some of them bold and flagrant, others stealthy and indirect,—the use of money has tainted the purity and honor of our politics. But of all these forms of corruption, the one most to be deplored is the poisoning of the spring of popular government at its very source. The habitual and wholesale bribery of voters not only makes the rule of the majority a laughing-stock and a farce, but it destroys the dignity and self-respect of communities, and so impairs manhood as to unfit it for the best things in every sphere of social or business life. We have had in our great cities fearful examples of ballot-box stuffing; fraudulent registration; dishonesty in the counting of votes and returning of results; colonization of repeaters; false nat-



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JUDGE BLAIR (ON THE LEFT) IS HERE SEEN PURSUING HIS USUAL METHOD OF QUESTIONING A SELF-CONFESSED VOTE-SELLER BEFORE PRONOUNCING SENTENCE

("He knows a large part of the voters of the county by their first names, and when they come into court the scene is rather a social one. The judge sits on one side of a plain table, the indicted man on the other. 'How about it, John; are you guilty?' asks the judge. 'I reckon I am, Judge,' is the usual reply. 'All right, John, I'll have to fine you \$10 and you can't vote any more for five years. I'll just put a six months' workhouse sentence on top of that, but I won't enforce it as long as you behave.' 'All right, Judge. You've got the goods on me.'"—From a newspaper report.)



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STREET SCENE IN WEST UNION, OHIO, NEAR THE COURTHOUSE

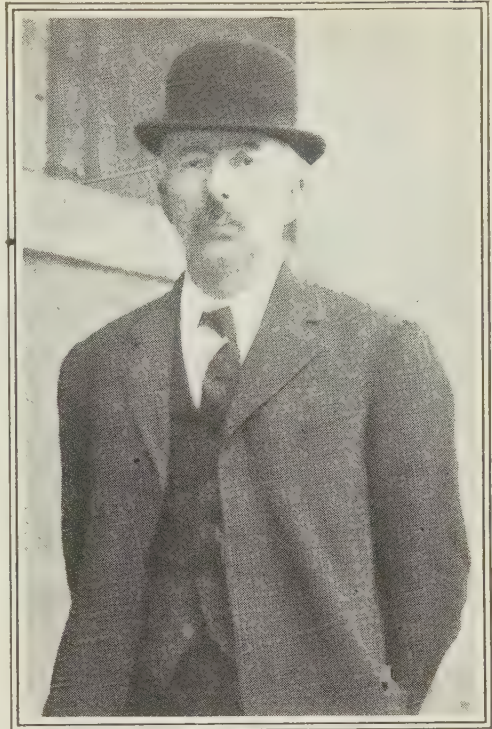
(Showing numerous vehicles of farmers and men from other parts of the county who have come to have their day in court and confess to the judge)

uralization of foreigners, and other offenses against fair and honest elections. But these things, which may indeed defeat the will of a majority of the rightful voters, are too trivial to be mentioned in comparison with the offense of corrupting the rightful voters themselves. The bribed voter has lost his natural zest for the great American game of politics. He has forsworn that tradition of party narrowness and prejudice that has its shining virtues, because the followers of Jackson or Clay were at least honest in partisanship. The voter who has reconciled himself to the practice of selling his vote to the party or the candidate that can offer the best cash price, has lost the hope and faith that make us a real "people of destiny" and that must be our reliance in any national crisis.

Sweeping reforms have at times been accomplished through the power of a concrete example, when the evil seemed most prevalent and most difficult to combat. Judge A. Z. Blair, holding court in Adams County, Ohio, has furnished such an example, and there is reason to believe that the result of his work will be felt in hundreds of counties and in many different States. Our comment, therefore, is not for the purpose of holding up that county to an unpleasant notoriety. On the contrary, Adams County is to be praised and congratulated.

With no threat, or help, or suggestion from the outside world, Adams County—lying somewhat off the main lines of travel and left a good deal to its own leadership and its own conclusions—has shown moral and social power to regenerate itself. When election day comes round again,—as, for example, next year, when a President of the United States is to be chosen as well as many other officials of narrower jurisdiction,—Adams County will have a restricted electorate of perhaps 4000 votes, as compared with the 6000 votes available for recent elections. But the 4000 next year will go to the polls with a finer pride in the honor of being sovereign American citizens than has ever been felt heretofore in any county of the United States. They will have had the thing brought home to them: some 2000 citizens of Adams County who have heretofore indulged in the practice of selling their votes will have been kept away from the polls by sentence of disfranchisement for a term of five years.

Judge Blair is himself a product of Adams County, although his home is at Portsmouth, the chief town of the adjoining county of Scioto. His judicial circuit lies in the great bend of the Ohio River at the extreme south-



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JUDGE A. Z. BLAIR, OF THE COURT OF COMMON PLEAS
FOR A GROUP OF COUNTIES IN SOUTHERN OHIO,
WHO HAS DETERMINED TO END THE TRAFFIC
IN VOTES WITHIN HIS JURISDICTION

ern point of the State, and includes Adams, Pike, Scioto, and Lawrence counties. This part of Ohio was settled in early pioneering days, when the Ohio River was the chief thoroughfare to the West. Many Revolutionary soldiers from Virginia and Pennsylvania went into those counties, together with pioneers from the Carolinas by way of Kentucky, and some families from New York and the Eastern States. In the Civil War these counties were represented more largely than almost any other part of the country.

Since the war, however, this southern strip of Ohio, like many other rural localities east of the Mississippi River, has been at a standstill. And where country neighborhoods are not making marked progress, they are likely to give evidence of some moral and social decadence. Just a hundred years ago there was great vitality in the pioneering communities of southern Ohio along the river. The majestic forests were rapidly broken by clearings, and the virgin soils were highly productive. There was zeal for education; and strong men and women were in the lead. But after the Civil War, many of the most

vigorous and progressive of these people from the river counties went to Illinois, Missouri, and the farther west. Those who remained at home had to compete with the still richer farm lands of the prairie States.

The farm country tributary to Cincinnati before the Civil War had been the most prosperous in America. But Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, Omaha, and other Western centers arose to destroy—for a time—the importance of the river valleys tributary to Cincinnati as producers of grain and meat. The log-cabin stage of civilization in the first generation is not harmful. But where a checking of agricultural development holds the people of the "back townships" practically in the log-cabin stage for a hundred years, there comes a marked falling off in the average of character and efficiency. Undoubtedly some of the poorer townships of these Ohio River counties have shown this kind of tendency to social decline.

This would explain the fact that it has been found, within the past month, that in certain neighborhoods having, let us say, a hundred votes, every voter without exception was actually guilty of having sold his vote in the last election and was accordingly in-

dicted and disfranchised for a period of five years. Such a condition would have been not only impossible, but almost unthinkable, at any time before the Civil War.

What these communities need is a fresh start. They need a civic and industrial revival much more than they need the old-fashioned kind of religious revival. They have not been lacking in a certain sort of religious life,—at least they have had a continuity of the church organizations of the earlier days. Yet, in the drag-net of last month, not only were hundreds of church members disfranchised for the crime of making merchandise of their votes, but the list also included church officers, Sunday-school superintendents, and two or three ministers of the gospel. Yet the churches must not be disparaged; for in the main they have helped to keep alive in Adams County that spirit of decency which has at last so strongly asserted itself. In these rural counties drinking and gambling and other forms of social disorder have a tendency to destroy the vitality of the people; and the churches have for some years been fighting these bad tendencies. Judge Blair himself had been strongly identified with the movement against the



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THESE THREE MEN ARE TYPICAL TOWNSHIP PARTY WORKERS WHO APPEARED AS WITNESSES BEFORE THE GRAND JURY, OBTAINING IMMUNITY FOR THEMSELVES UNDER THE INFORMERS' LAW, IN RETURN FOR HAVING SURRENDERED THEIR LISTS OF BRIBE-TAKERS



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THIS GRAND JURY CONSISTS OF SEVEN REPUBLICANS, SEVEN DEMOCRATS, AND ONE PROHIBITIONIST, WITH EX-CONGRESSMAN FENTON (AT THE EXTREME RIGHT) AS FOREMAN

(The picture was taken expressly for this magazine, Mr. Fenton knowing that it would be used in full appreciation of the grand jury's good work)

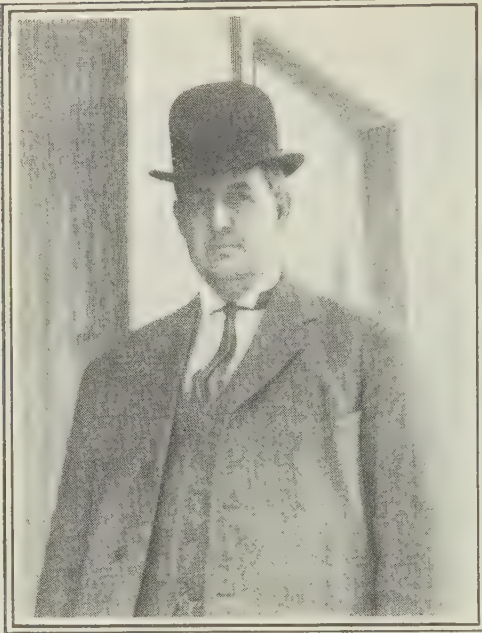
drink evil. It seems to be within bounds to say that the moral force requisite to begin the successful assault upon the trafficking in votes had been accumulated in the effort to fight down the worst evils of the drink traffic in Adams County, and to eliminate other forms of social corruption,—movements in which the women have shown greater numerical strength, and deeper power of conviction and continuous effort, than the men.

Judge Blair's great title to fame will lie in the fact that he has invented and applied a really effective method of reform. It is not that the laws of Ohio against bribery and corruption in elections are either good, bad, or indifferent. In fact they are not what they should be, as Governor Harmon now reminds the legislature. But such practices have always, everywhere, under popular governments, been manifestly unlawful. The trouble has always been, in a corrupted community, to find the leverage whereby to obtain the evidence, secure indictments, and make certain of convictions. Judge Blair himself for several years has been trying to find a way to purify the politics of Adams County, and it is only now that he has suc-

ceeded. Like almost every great thing, it all seems easy and simple when once stated. Let the outline of the method be presented in a few sentences.

To begin with, the buying and selling of votes, which had been going on in Adams County for more than thirty years, had become so open and shameless as to be a matter of common knowledge. Nobody in private conversation denied the facts. Many of those who had sold their votes seemed rather proud than ashamed of the transaction. Judge Blair had been so intimately acquainted with the political life of the county that he knew, as did many others, the condition prevailing. He knew that both parties had been guilty, and that the local politicians and "party workers" had been very generally engaged in making the bargains and distributing the money, using their respective quotas of funds contributed in greater part by candidates for office.

The law of Ohio permits the judge, in a bribery case, to grant immunity to those who turn informer and become State's evidence. Judge Blair's great thought was to take all the politicians and vote-buyers in the county,



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SPECIAL PROSECUTOR WILL P. STEPHENSON, WHO HAS BEEN JUDGE BLAIR'S RIGHT-HAND MAN IN THE CLEANING-UP OF ADAMS COUNTY

to the number perhaps of two or three hundred, summon them as witnesses before a special grand jury, and promise them all immunity from present or future prosecution if they would turn over to the court and grand jury their lists of purchased voters, with the amounts paid, and all the necessary facts. It was not Judge Blair's motive to subject any individuals whatsoever to drastic punishment, nor did he intend to humiliate any one, beyond the point of incidental necessity. His one object was to break up the practice of bribe-giving and taking. It was plain enough that if all the vote-buyers should put the grand jury in possession, frankly, of the entire truth, they would bring no harm upon themselves and a minimum of harm upon the men whose votes had been sold.

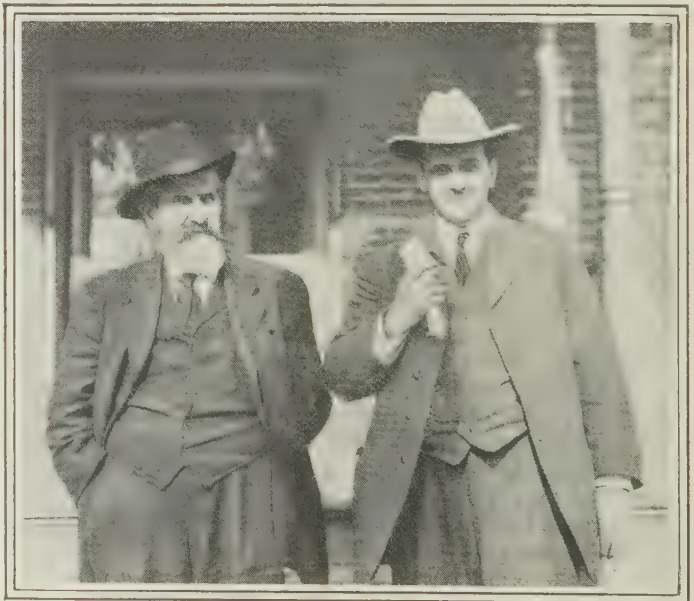
The essence of Judge Blair's scheme was leniency toward all who confessed fully and freely, and stern threats of condign punish-

ment against those who refused to confess. Under these circumstances it was clearly best for the politicians to put all the facts in the hands of the judge and the jury.

The next part of the scheme was to be the announcement, through all the newspapers of the county, and through all other sources of publicity, that the names of those who had sold their votes were known to Judge Blair and to the grand jury, and that indictments had been found against them. If, however, they were wise enough to come to West Union, the county seat, of their own free will and make confession to the judge,—thus saving the expense and trouble of serving papers and making arrests,—they would be treated with great leniency. It was a part of the scheme not to make known the information disclosed to the grand jury by the politicians, and not to make public the names of those against whom indictments had been found. It was desired that as many as possible might facilitate the movement of justice by making confession, and allowing themselves to be sentenced.

Such was the bold, simple project. Suffice it to say that it was as effective in practice as it was comprehensive in conception.

Judge Blair formed his special grand jury of fifteen citizens of Adams County, and operations began on the 13th of December. To show that no party advantage was sought, the grand jury consisted of seven Repub-



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THE YOUNGER MAN IS SHERIFF J. D. WILLIAMS, OF ADAMS COUNTY, AND THE OTHER IS HIS DEPUTY, CAPTAIN COOPER

licans, seven Democrats, and one Prohibitionist. A former Congressman, the Hon. L. J. Fenton, a man of intelligence and probity, was made foreman. In his charge to the grand jury, Judge Blair made a frank statement of the situation, the following paragraph being an example of his forcible, direct style:

Conservative leaders of both parties claim that the purchasable vote of Adams County is at least 2000, or more than one-third of the total vote. The young people of the county are growing up with full knowledge of this open traffic in votes and conditions are becoming intolerable. The purchase of votes with which this county has been cursed for years is so common that only a few men, comparatively speaking, are not identified with this merchandise of the ballot. I have been told that the grand jury would not dare indict any one for the purchase or sale of votes, but I believe you will do your duty. If it should develop that you do not bring indictments, then a condition of anarchy prevails in Adams county.

The grand jury took the judge at his word; all the politicians and precinct workers were gathered in; a local editor who wrote an article denouncing the investigation was sentenced to fine and imprisonment for contempt of court; and forthwith there was consternation throughout the 625 square miles of Adams County. Within a few days the indictment mill was grinding out true bills at the average rate of a hundred or more every day. The politicians gave the evidence, and the particular precinct or township under inquiry was duly warned. The judge was aided by a special prosecutor, Mr. W. P. Stephenson, whose efforts were assiduous, and by no means unnecessary. For

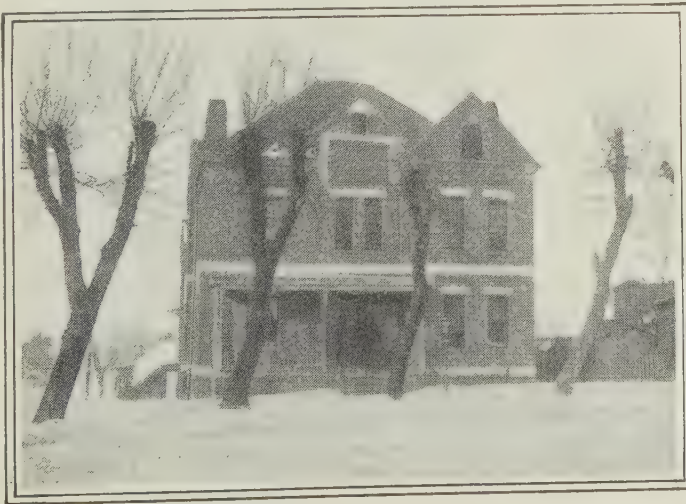


THIS MAN, WHO IS SEVENTY-FIVE YEARS OLD, WALKED THROUGH THE SNOW FROM BENTONVILLE, TEN MILES DISTANT, TO SQUARE THINGS WITH JUDGE BLAIR

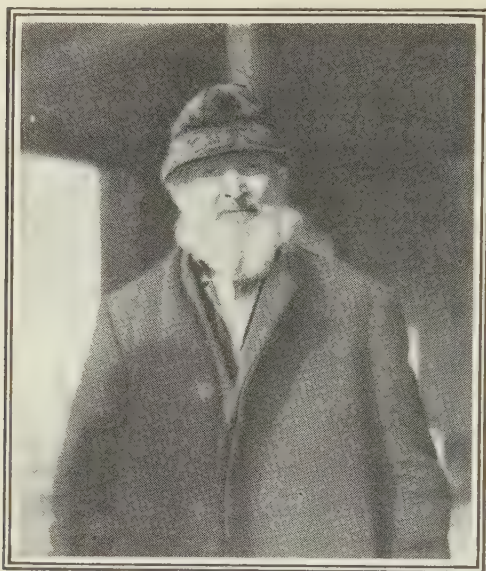
although a situation had been created which frightened the guilty, making them feel that if they did not confess they might be sent to prison, there still remained many points to be dealt with by a firm and resolute prosecutor who was in full sympathy with the judge. For it was not quite the uniform rule that the guilty confessed, and in a few instances there were jail sentences which were not remitted.

After the movement had fairly begun and some hundreds of indictments had been found, Judge Blair and Prosecutor Stephenson inserted the following notice in all the newspapers of Adams County:

We ask all citizens who have knowledge of any persons who received money at the last election and who are not coming in, or who know of any



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THE ADAMS COUNTY JAIL, IN TEMPORARY USE AS COURTHOUSE



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THIS VENERABLE FARMER, WHOSE FACE IS GIVEN AS A TYPE RATHER THAN FOR ANY PERSONAL REASONS, WAS HEAVILY FINED FOR HAVING DECEIVED JUDGE BLAIR AS TO HIS MEANS

person who bought votes and who has not been in court, or who has tried to shield any person who received money at the last election, to let the undersigned know at once. We will keep your name in strict confidence and you will greatly facilitate our work.

ALBION Z. BLAIR, Judge.
WILL P. STEPHENSON, Prosecutor.

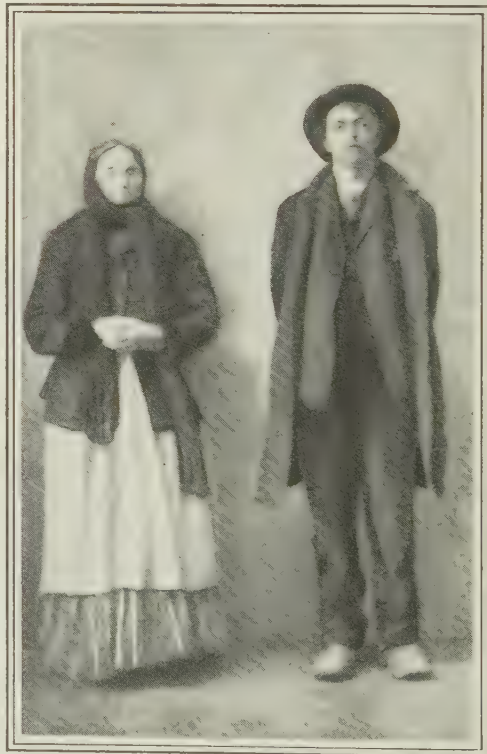
As a result of these notices, the grand jury was busy on the first two days of the New Year, and by that time it had indicted exactly 1500 voters. It then adjourned for a few days to enable Judge Blair to catch up with his work of sentencing the hundreds who were pleading guilty. The Judge's method in dealing with these men was simple, colloquial, and informal. His manner and tone were kindly and often humorous. The culprit was generally asked to tell something of his family and his circumstances, as well as the facts about the vote-selling transaction; and the judge showed a rare talent for giving the needed word of good advice.

From the first, his practice was to impose a fine of \$25 at once, remitting all but \$5, then to pronounce a sentence of six months in the workhouse at Cincinnati (which was at once suspended in consideration of future good behavior), and finally to disfranchise the voter for five years, this part of the penalty being absolute.

The scenes and incidents of this notable movement have been both picturesque and

pathetic in an unusual degree. The county town is many miles from a railroad station. Octogenarians walked for miles over rough wintry roads to make their humiliating confessions. Women came from remote parts of the county to beg the court's leniency for bedridden husbands. The jail served for court purposes, the old courthouse having been destroyed by fire. A very few skinflint farmers of large means were found misleading the court as to their possessions, and were fined several hundred dollars by way of example.

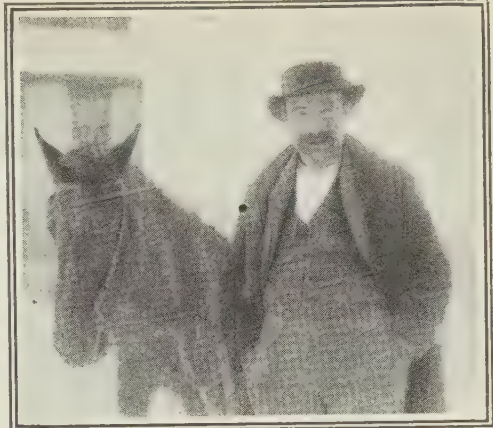
Such details, illustrating every phase of human frailty and rustic character, do not belong to any permanent record of the work of ballot reform in Adams County,—although many of them will be cherished as illustrating the methods and the qualities of the remarkable personality who leads the movement. For there are traits of mind and character in Judge Blair that remind one of the patient and resolute country lawyer of Illinois who, fifty years ago, was President-elect and about to enter upon his great burden of national responsibility. Abraham Lincoln was much more interested in the



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THIS AGED WOMAN WALKED TWENTY MILES TO MAKE CONFESSION FOR HER HUSBAND, WHO WAS ILL IN BED, AND TO PRESENT HER SON, WHO HAD ALSO SOLD HIS VOTE

work he had to do than in the attainment of high place. If he had been the victim of personal ambition, he could not have been the man of strength and wisdom for the country's need. Judge Blair stands well in the opinion of the people of his judicial circuit. He has a great work to accomplish, and it is of high importance that this work be done thoroughly and completely. It will have been enough for any man to do in our generation. It is of small consequence, therefore, comparatively speaking, whether Judge Blair in future time be promoted to higher offices or not. It is his great distinction that in his local office he has seen real work to do,



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A TIFFIN TOWNSHIP MAN WHO RODE THIS HORSE A GOOD MANY MILES TO MAKE HIS CONFESSION AND RECEIVE SENTENCE



A "BACK-TOWNSHIP" GROUP

(These four young men were so foolish as to refuse to make confession voluntarily, and they were accordingly arrested and sentenced to eight-months' terms in the workhouse at Cincinnati. After a few days in jail their sentences were suspended. The example of sending them to prison had a salutary effect upon hundreds of other young men in the county)

and that—in doing it because it was plain duty—he has been rendering his State and this entire country an immeasurable service.

Our representative, who went to West Union to see Judge Blair and to take the photographs which accompany this article, came back with the impression that the judge intended to apply a similar method of voting reform in the other counties of his circuit. When questioned on this point Judge Blair was naturally reticent. There were obvious reasons why he could not speak. But on January 14 he answered the question in the most practical way. He opened court at Portsmouth, on the Ohio River, in the county of Scioto, lying just east of Adams County,

and promptly announced that he would institute in Scioto the same kind of an investigation that was still going on in Adams.

And he allowed it to be quite generally believed that the same method would be applied in Pike and Lawrence counties. Common rumor from those neighboring counties points to the serious prevalence of the practice of buying and selling votes, although we have no information that would permit even a guess as to the extent to which the practice has been carried on elsewhere than in Adams County. Assertions have been made that Judge Blair's method ought to be used by other common-pleas judges throughout the State of Ohio.

Heretofore, the talk about the wholesale buying of votes has been largely conjectural. In a number of instances entire boroughs have been disfranchised in England because a high percentage of venality had been discovered among the voters. But Judge Blair's proof that 2000 out of the 6000 voters of Adams County are accustomed to sell their votes, is the most definite piece of tangible information in that general field of discussion that we have ever obtained in the United States. To save the people of Ohio from the supposition that we are holding them up to the world's reproach or contempt, it is only fair to remind our readers that the rumors of wholesale vote-selling in parts of the State of New York and of the New England States have been for years very persistent and seldom denied.

An analysis of the recent election in the State of New York shows that the Democratic victory was not due to any increase

in the Democratic vote, which indeed was smaller than usual, but to an enormous falling off of the Republican vote in the rural counties. And the public ought to know that the politicians, among themselves, agree in attributing a great part of this falling off to the fact that the Republicans were without any funds this year to be distributed liberally among local workers, for use on election day in "getting out the vote." Generally the Republicans of the State of New York have had ample funds contributed to the "machine" by the great corporations and special interests. This year such money was withheld, and the Republican treasury was empty.

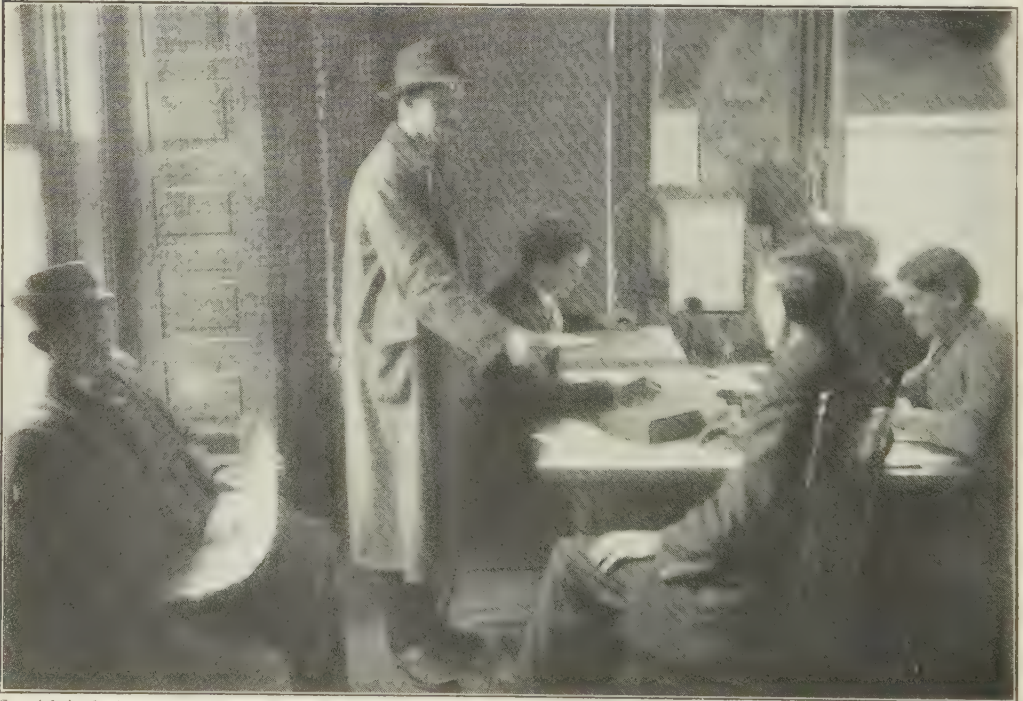
Undoubtedly there is a distinction between money used for getting out the vote, and money used to pay the voter for voting one ticket rather than the other. But the distinction is one which has a tendency in contested campaigns to become blurred. The New York farmer who says he is a Republican and will never vote the Democratic ticket,—but who also declares that he will not harness his horse and drive to town over bad roads to cast his vote on election day, unless somebody gives him five dollars or ten dollars,—may have learned to convince himself that he is not a bribe-taker. Yet his refusal to vote

unless paid, is equivalent to giving a half vote to the other party.

The methods of using money wholesale on election day throughout the East, if not clearly criminal under the law, are dangerously close to it. They destroy the independence and self-respect of the voter; and they so weaken his sense of duty and privilege as a citizen that it would not be a long stride for him to change his vote and to take money from the other party, when he has once learned to abstain from voting unless bribed by his own party.

Abstention from voting, unless a fairly good reason can be given, should subject the voter to some kind of penalty,—such, for example, as disability to vote at the next following election. And the acceptance of money in payment for the trouble of coming to the polls should be regarded as both morally disgraceful and legally culpable.

Adams County, therefore, no matter how low she may have fallen, has risen, unaided, in the strength of her own sense of rectitude, and now heads the list. In the Presidential election next year, the most decent lot of voters in the entire country will be those of Adams County, Ohio. For this rehabilitation, Adams County should accord great honor to Judge Blair.



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THIS TYPICAL SCENE SHOWS A SENTENCED VOTER WHO HAS GONE FROM JUDGE BLAIR'S ROOM TO THE OFFICE OF THE COUNTY CLERK TO PAY HIS FIVE DOLLARS AND HAVE THE PROPER ENTRIES MADE REGARDING HIS SENTENCE.

"THE KINGLY CHILDREN"—A FAIRY TALE IN MUSIC

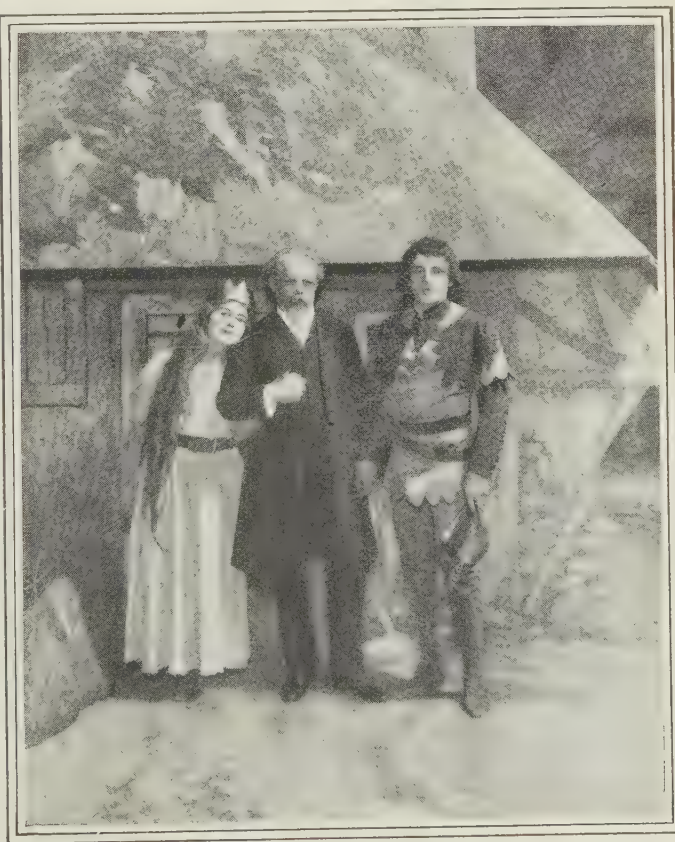
BY MONTROSE J. MOSES

THOSE who heard Humperdinck's "Die Königs-kinder," when it was given its première on any stage, at the Metropolitan Opera House, New York, on December 28, 1910, went away with the impression that it was a version of some old fairy tale which had entered the nursery by way of Grimm and Andersen. But they were greatly mistaken, for it is to the credit of the librettist, "Ernst Rosmer," otherwise known as Frau Elsa Bernstein of Munich, that she has invented a charming story bearing all the features of folk-lore, but which is thoroughly original in its plot, however much of the "märchen" atmosphere it may contain.

We say that "Die Königs-kinder" was first given on any stage at the Metropolitan Opera House only a few weeks ago, but this statement may be modified. The score, as Humperdinck has written it, is an elaboration of lyrical passages, originally composed for a musical drama which, in America, was first given under Conried at the Irving Place Theater, with Agnes Sorma, during the season of 1898. In addition to this, Mr. Martin Harvey, when he last came to America with "The Only Way," brought with him also a version of "Kingly Children," which met with marked success both in New York and in London. Besides which, "Die Königs-kinder," while it has just been received here with éclat, has been some time in evolution.

There is a tendency at the present time to cater to the imagination of childhood through the medium of the stage. "Hänsel und Gretel" was welcomed as an excellent opera for young folk in a period of the theater when few entertainments of a fairy char-

acter are to be found. But before "Die Königs-kinder" was greeted at the Metropolitan Opera House, other dramas of high value had been accepted by children, such as "Peter Pan" and "The Blue Bird"—and their success marked a rare quality of fancy in the theater. There is no age limit to imagination; grown people and youngsters alike relish the magic of a make-believe. You hear people saying that "Die Königs-kinder" is not for children but about children; yet the outward pictures surely belong to their realm and the main structure of the plot is no more complicated than the average Grimm or Andersen tale.



DR. ENGLEBERT HUMPERDINCK, THE COMPOSER

(As he appeared last month with Miss Farrar and Mr. Jadlowker, at the first performance of "Die Königs-kinder")

The New Theater has just announced for production the poetic drama by Josephine Preston Peabody, entitled "The Piper" ("The Pied Piper of Hamelin"), which received the Stratford-on-Avon prize, and was played by Benson and his company shortly after the death of King Edward VII. In subtlety of psychology, this play would hardly be understood by the average boy or girl, but the main outlines of the story, *per se*, are easily comprehensible, and the pictures presented have undoubted appeal of their own. In other words, a pictorial drama, with a content beyond the understanding of childhood, may yet have interest for young people, and in this respect, "Die Königskinder" is just as suitable for them as Maeterlinck's "Blue Bird."

From the standpoint of the libretto, Herr Humperdinck was furnished with a charming theme,—one where much poetry might have been evolved by a dramatist of real merit. It is generally conceded that wherever Humperdinck's score fails of unity, of consistent motives, and of sustained melody, one is sure to find inconsistencies of plot, and the introduction of unessential details. The symbolism of the Goose-Girl, whose pedigree is as

filmy as that of Mélisande in "Pelléas and Mélisande," and the symbolism of the King's Son, are difficult to direct toward any high idea or satisfactory ideal as the goal. The humor of the townspeople, intent on finding some king to rule over them, is reminiscent of "Die Meistersinger"; it is the one aspect of the opera where it may be said that the librettist has arrived at distinctness; for the Fiddler, the Woodcutter, and the Broom-maker of Hellabrun are excellent characterizations.

The story, crudely Englished by Charles Henry Meltzer, narrates how a King's Son, seeking adventure, meets with a Goose-Girl who is under the spell of a Witch—a girl truly of the innocence of Miranda, for this is the first man she has seen. It so happens that in Hellabrun they desire a ruler, and the old Witch has prophesied that whoso enters the city gate at noon on the morrow shall have the throne. The King's Son, failing in his conquest of the Goose-Girl's love, leaves for Hellabrun, where the Council puts him to work as a swineherd, not recognizing his royal manner.

By the powers of a shooting star, the Goose-Girl is finally freed from the wiles of



THE CHILDREN BEG THE FIDDLER TO FIND THE MISSING ROYAL CHILDREN



THE GOOSE-GIRL (MISS GERALDINE FARRAR) AND HER GEES

the Witch, in time to make haste to the city, just as the midday hour strikes. The gates roll back, revealing to an expectant group the little heroine surrounded by her flock of geese. Twice over the Metropolitan Opera House stage wandered these real live feathered actors, and to their credit may it be said that they behaved well, and were so much more real than the stage property used in "Lohengrin." The King's Son rushes to meet the Goose-Girl, just as the populace turn in anger and drive them forth, to wander in wintry woods, where, in a starving condition, they are given a poisoned cake of the old Witch's making. The two inconsequent and innocent lovers die, too soon to receive contriteness and loyalty from a city which has been so cruelly unjust and so blind. The curtain descends as a procession of Hellabrun people, mostly children, bear the two away.

Such is the bare plot—not an uncommon one, and surely neither a startling nor a deep one. Yet it is thoroughly picturesque and full of romance and feeling. Its symbolism has no hidden intention, even though there is some sarcastic political meaning in the hero's

defining to the folk of Hellabrun what a king really is.

No attempt shall be made here to analyze Herr Humperdinck's score; its chief distinction is that it has melody and charm. But both inspiration and "uplift" need to be drawn from this story of "Kingly Children." The music, Mr. Henderson claims, is what the Germans call "all theme," some motives being more pronounced and more persistent than others—passages in character both narrative and descriptive. There is scope in this latter respect, for there are three scenes of pleasant simplicity and of mountain grandeur. In the cast, on its first production, "Die Königskinder" had Geraldine Farrar as the Goose-Girl; Hermann Jadowerker as the King's Son; Otto Goritz as the Fiddler; and Louise Homer as the Witch.

The story is told of Herr Humperdinck that once he walked miles to avoid spoiling some child's pleasure which depended on him. This genial and youthful responsiveness is what one feels throughout the new opera.

So much for the outward history of Humperdinck's new child opera. But there is something more, for the fancifulness of both



THE KING'S SON
(Mr. Jadlowker)

"Hänsel und Gretel" and "Die Königskinder" is due very largely to the nature of the man behind them. Humperdinck was born in 1854 at Siegburg-on-Rhine, near Bonn. He went to Cologne at an early age, intent on the study of architecture, but, meeting with the great pianist, Hiller, his interest was turned to the study of music, his true *metier*. He attended the Cologne Conservatory, and in quick succession won the Mendelssohn (1878) and the Meyerbeer (1880) prizes. At the age of twenty-six, he became an intimate friend of the Wagner family, and naturally this closeness of association only served to identify him more and more with the school of the master. Yet to Humperdinck's credit it must be said that he has not risen above, so much as individualized himself away from, the charge of imitation. His music, as heard in "Hänsel und Gretel" and "Die Königskinder," sounds reminiscent of German folk song, but there are only a few real touches of historic significance in the score; the other melodies are due to his own genius and his own originality. Through atmospheric charm, he has added something original to what he learned from Wagner.

Nevertheless, his knowledge of the master earned for him the right to arrange the piano-forte edition of the music dramas, and likewise to assist in the preparation of "Parsifal." During this period of intimacy, he likewise gave lessons to Siegfried Wagner. The title

of Professor came to Humperdinck after a varied career as teacher. In 1885-86, he was at the Conservatorium Barcelona; during 1887-88 at Cologne; from 1890-96 at Frankfurt-on-Main, where he won the Mozart scholarship, serving also as concert master at the opera, and as musical critic for the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. Since 1900, he has been in Berlin as member of the Academy of Fine Arts and as Professor of Composition.

During all this time, environment and temperament were guiding the taste of Englebert Humperdinck. First of all the Rhine country brought peace and joy and imaginative richness to the musician; then followed the practical experience gained by him while serving in the first Bayreuth festival; finally the fact that Wagner had turned to myth as his vehicle of expression, suggested the use of the popular legend which would afford a different technical form and more human musical motives. The great characteristics of Humperdinck are his humanity and his humor, which he found could best gain expression through the childlike unfolding of a story. It will be remembered that Ibsen was confronted with the same quandaries regarding the use of materials from the ballad or the saga, while writing his early dramas, typified in "The Vikings at Hægeland," "The Pretenders," and "Peer Gynt."

The artistic progression of the composer may be indicated rapidly. His first two pieces, "Das Glück von Edenhall" and "Die



THE WITCH
(Mme. Louise Homer)

Wallfahrt nach Kelvaar," passed by with slight notice, and not until "Hänsel und Gretel," with the libretto by his sister, Adelheid Wette, came to light at Weimar in 1893, did he suddenly find himself recognized. The opera had been composed modestly and slowly, and partly in the spirit of fun, for the children of Frau Wette. So much more was the surprise of success to Humperdinck.

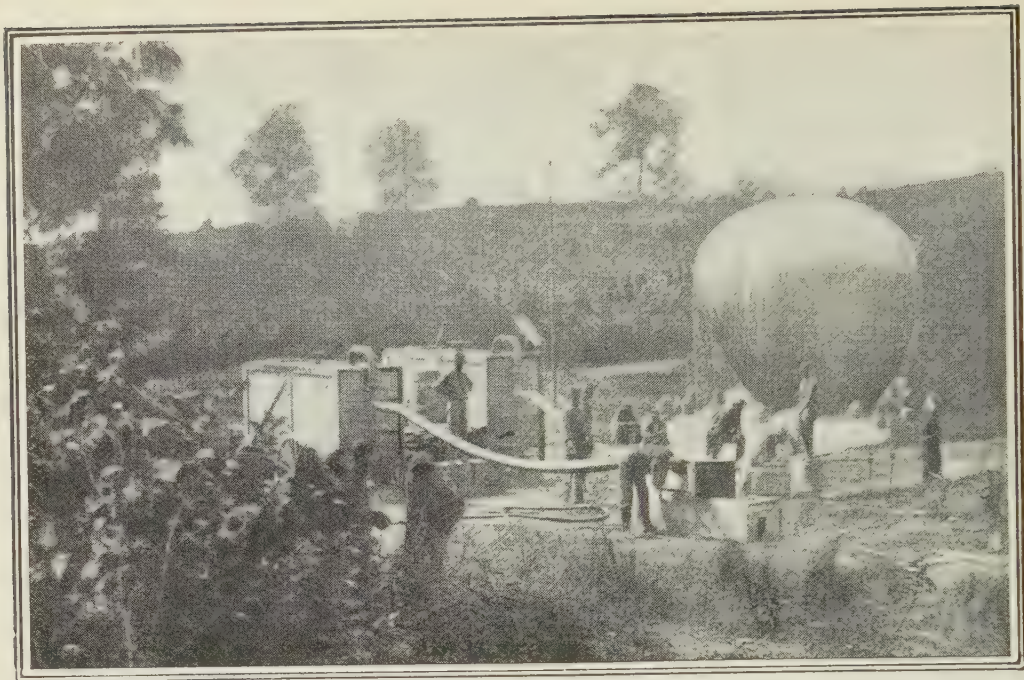
His imaginative tendency, his natural taste, his youthful heart, now had their way. Following "Hänsel und Gretel" in 1893, came "Dornröschen" (1895), "Die sieben Geiseln" (1896), and "Die Königs-kinder" (1896)—all of them of fairy-tale character, exhibiting a lightness and grace that were measure of the spirit of the man. He is fond of young folk; his quickness of observation and his humor in conversation make him the most agreeable of company. He takes pleasure in gardens and in nature through all her phases, and he has love for animals. As a linguist he

is accomplished, and his chief recreations are the study of geometry and a close knowledge of every new invention.

Such is the composer of "Die Königs-kinder." While working upon "Hänsel und Gretel," he lived in a small village where Fräulein Taxer dwelt—a lady who afterward became his wife. The success attendant upon his opera did not prompt him to thrust forward his earlier compositions, for the simple reason that, a fire breaking out in the attic of his father's house, the manuscripts were entirely destroyed. He therefore began with a success, and advanced to fresher and larger things. When the time arrived for "Die Königs-kinder," he was living at Boppard-on-Rhine, in a villa of pleasant situation. Here, silent but keen and genial, Humperdinck, in his study on the second floor, with windows commanding a far sweep of the river, and with a piano near his desk, began work on his new score.



DEATH OF THE KING'S SON AND THE GOOSE-GIRL



INFLATING THE BALLOON "INTREPID" TO RECONNOITER THE BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS, JUNE 1, 1862
(Professor Lowe stands at the right, with his hand on the network of the balloon. This and the three following pictures are reproduced from the REVIEW OF REVIEWS' collection of Civil War photographs)

OBSERVATION BALLOONS IN THE BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS

BY T. S. C. LOWE

[The article which follows has a double interest to readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. Its account of war ballooning half a century ago is sufficiently detailed to prove instructive to the many students of modern aeronautics. The unusual manner in which the contribution was obtained is also worthy of remark. Professor Lowe wrote to the magazine after discovering himself and his balloon represented in a picture from the REVIEW OF REVIEWS' collection of Civil War photographs. This collection, numbering several thousand photographs, all taken between 1861 and 1865, was accumulated for the purpose of illustrating "The Photographic History of the Civil War," a ten-volume work now in preparation. In connection with its publication a series of articles will appear in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS during 1911, commemorative of the semi-centennial anniversary of the Civil War outbreak. Professor Lowe's present contribution thus serves as an introduction to the series of articles, which will begin in the March number, and will not only include the reminiscences and narratives of surviving participants of this greatest of civil conflicts, but also the conclusions of modern military scientists with regard to the strategy and conduct of the war. Mr. George Haven Putnam, Admiral French E. Chadwick, Gen. T. F. Rodenbough, Gen. Charles King, Gen. A. W. Greely, and other former Union soldiers, will contribute, as well as several who participated on the Confederate side.—THE EDITOR.]

WHEN I saw the photograph showing my inflation of the balloon *Intrepid* to reconnoiter the Battle of Fair Oaks—a photograph that constitutes one of the illustrations in "The Photographic History of the Civil War"—it surprised me very indeed.

Any one examining the picture will see my hand at the extreme right, resting on the network, where I was measuring the amount of gas already in the balloon, preparatory

to completing the inflation from gas in the smaller balloon in order that I might ascend to a greater height. This I did within a space of five minutes, saving a whole hour at the most vital point of the battle. With the conditions then existing, I estimate the value of that hour to the Union army at not less than a million dollars a minute.

A volume of my reminiscences, in press at the time of writing, deals with this early epi-



PROFESSOR LOWE ASCENDING WITH HIS BALLOON "INTREPID" TO RECONNOITER THE BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS

sode in the history of war balloons more in detail. Four weeks before, midnight observations with one of my war balloons had enabled me to discover that the fortifications of Yorktown (before which McClellan's advance toward Richmond had halted) were being evacuated. After full confirmation of the fact, I aroused the commanding general and other quietly sleeping corp commanders in time to put the whole army in motion, in the very early hours of the morning, which enabled us to overtake the Confederate army at Williamsburg, about half way between Yorktown and Richmond.

FROM WILLIAMSBURG TO RICHMOND

Without the time and knowledge gained by the midnight observations, the battle of Williamsburg might never have taken place, and the Confederates might have gotten away with all their stores and ammunition without injury.

It was also my practice of night observations which gave the primary knowledge that saved the Army of the Potomac at the Battle of Fair Oaks.

On arriving in sight of Richmond I took observations to ascertain the best location for crossing the Chickahominy River. The

one selected was where the Grape Vine or Sumner Bridge was afterward built across that stream. Mechanicsville was the nearest point to Richmond, being only about four miles away, but there we would have to face the gathering army of the Confederacy, together with the only point properly fortified with trenches and earth works. Here I established one of my aeronautic stations, where I could better estimate the increase of the Confederate Army, and observe their various movements.

ON THE CHICKAHOMINY

My main station and personal camp was on Gaines' Hill, overlooking the bridge where our army was to cross.

After this bridge was completed, about half of our army crossed over on the Richmond side of the river. The remainder delayed a while to protect our transportation supplies and railway facilities. In the meantime the Confederate camp in and about Richmond grew larger every day. Suddenly a heavy rain caused the Chickahominy to resemble a lake, rather than a small stream. This completely cut off the supplies to General Heintzelman's command. The water flowed deeply at both ends of the bridge, which under great difficul-

ties must be lengthened before the balance of our army or supplies could cross over.

General Lee saw the fix that we were in. He immediately took advantage of it by calling on Jackson and his command, and every other source from which soldiers could be gathered.

General McClellan made a request for a portion of the good-sized army at Washington to guard his supply trains. The remainder of the army was to join Heintzelman as quickly as the extension of the bridge could be completed. He was led to believe that this reasonable request would be acceded to. He asked me to take frequent observations in that direction and to let him know as soon as I spied reinforcements coming.

My report that no reinforcements were in sight was a great disappointment to the General. To join that portion of the army that had already crossed would uncover his source of supplies, and leave him quite isolated should he not be able to capture the city of Richmond, the defenses of which were fast being strengthened.

My night and day observations convinced me that, with the great army then assembled in and about Richmond, we were too late to gain the victory which a short time before had been within our grasp.

CONFEDERATE ATTACK ON A BALLOON

In the meantime, desperate efforts were being made at Mechanicsville to destroy my observation balloon. At one point the

Confederates massed twelve of their best rifled cannon. While I was taking an early morning observation, all these twelve guns were simultaneously discharged at short range. Some of the shells passed through the rigging of the balloon. Nearly all burst not more than 200 feet beyond me. Evidently, through spies, they had got my base of operation and range perfectly.

I quickly changed my base after that, and they never again came so near destroying the balloon—and myself.

DISCOVERING A CONFEDERATE ADVANCE FROM RICHMOND

I felt that it was important to take thorough observations of their camps that very night, at that point. I did so. I saw the great camps about Richmond ablaze with camp fires. From previous experience I realized what this meant. The Confederate troops were cooking rations preparatory to a movement. I knew that this must be aimed against that portion of the army then across the river.

At daylight the next morning (June 1st) I took another observation, continuing until the sun lighted up the roads. The atmosphere was perfectly clear. I knew exactly where to look for their line of march. I soon discovered one, then two, and finally three columns of troops, with artillery and ammunition wagons, moving toward Heintzelman's command.

All this information was conveyed to the



THE BALLOON "CONSTITUTION" IN USE BY PROFESSOR LOWE DURING THE BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS

(This was the smaller of the balloons employed by Professor Lowe in his observation work. During the battle its lifting power proved insufficient and its gas was transferred to the larger balloon *Intrepid*.)



PROFESSOR LOWE (IN CENTER) COMPLETING A DISPATCH AT THE BATTLE OF FAIR OAKS, JUST BEFORE ASCENDING WITH TELEGRAPH APPARATUS AND WIRE

Commanding General. I was surprised and gratified at the rapidity with which he added a great force to the work on both ends of the bridge.

TRANSFERRING GAS FROM ONE BALLOON TO ANOTHER

I operated the balloon *Washington* at Mechanicsville for observations until the Confederate army had reached within four or five miles of our lines. I then telegraphed my assistants to inflate the large balloon *Intrepid*, in case anything should happen to either of the other two balloons. This order was quickly put in motion. A six-mile ride on horse brought me back to my camp at Gaines' Hill. I took another observation from the balloon *Constitution*, but found it necessary to double the altitude usually sufficient in order to overlook the forests and hills intervening.

To carry up my telegraph apparatus wires and cables at this double height, the lifting force of the *Constitution* proved too weak. I was put to my wits' end as to how I could best save an hour's time, which was the most important and precious hour of all my experiences in the army. The two armies visibly came nearer and nearer together. There was no time to be lost.

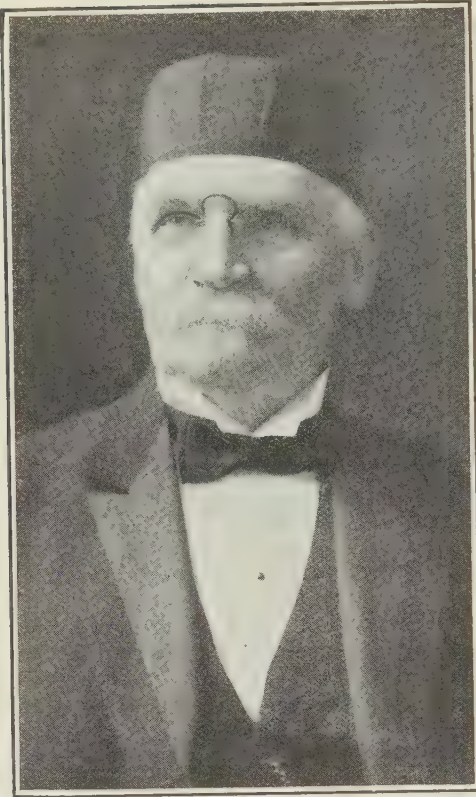
It flashed through my mind that if I could only transfer the gas from the smaller balloon *Constitution* into the balloon *Intrepid*, then only half filled, I could save an hour's time, and to us that hour's time would be worth a million dollars a minute.

But how to rig up the proper connection between the balloons? And in the little time remaining? I was at a loss—until I glanced down and saw a ten-inch camp kettle, which instantly gave me the key to the situation. I immediately ordered the bottom cut out of the camp kettle, the *Intrepid* disconnected from the gas generating apparatus, the *Constitution* brought down the hill—and, in the course of five or six minutes, connection was made to both balloons, and the gas in the *Constitution* transferred into that of the *Intrepid*. This one simple act, in my opinion, saved the Union army from destruction.

TELEGRAPHING FROM THE SKY

I immediately took a high altitude observation as rapidly as possible, wrote my most important despatch to the Commanding General on my way down, dictated it to my expert telegraph operator; then, with the telegraph cable and instruments, ascended to the height desired, and remained there almost constantly during the entire battle, keeping the wires hot with information.

The Confederate skirmish line soon came in contact with our outposts. I perceived the whole well-laid plan. They had massed the bulk of their artillery and troops on our right wing, then resting near the Chickahominy River, not only with the intention of cutting off our ammunition supplies, but to prevent the main portion of the army from crossing the bridge to join Heintzelman. In the meantime they had planned a raid to cut



PROFESSOR T. S. C. LOWE

off our supplies from the north, which that portion of the army, not yet over the river, for the time being prevented.

As I reported the movements of the Confederates, I could see that, in a very few minutes, the Union troops were maneuvering to offset their plans.

THE FIGHTING AT FAIR OAKS

At about twelve o'clock of June 1 both armies were in deadly conflict along the whole line. Our army not only held its line firmly, but repulsed the enemy at all its weaker points.

In the meantime many brigades and regiments had entirely exhausted their ammunition. Brave Heintzelman rode along the line giving orders for the men to shout. Then I could hear the shouts distinctly—but they

did not spring with the heartiness that was hoped for; a soldier with an empty cartridge box does not feel much like shouting.

CROSSING THE RIVER

It was one of the greatest strains upon my nerves that I have ever experienced, to observe for many hours an almost drawn battle, while the bridge to connect the two armies still lacked completion. By four o'clock, however, our first troops under Sumner's command were able to cross, followed by wagons of ammunition.

As these troops swung in line I could hear a real shout, which sounded entirely different from the former one.

The Confederates then began to prepare a retreat. Their wagons were turned toward Richmond and the fighting force kept intact until after nightfall, leaving us the victors. For the want of the reinforcements requested, we were in no position to follow them over their earth works into Richmond.

We had saved the army, which on the following day began its masterly fighting retreat to the James River.

[EDITOR'S NOTE.—Appended is a quotation from the Confederate General Longstreet's reminiscences, describing Professor Lowe's ballooning as it appeared to the men in gray. It is remarkable that Professor Lowe himself assisted in the capture of the Confederate balloon. General Longstreet writes: "It may be of interest to relate an incident which illustrates the pinched condition of the Confederacy even as early as 1862.

"The Federals had been using balloons in examining our positions, and we watched with envious eyes their beautiful observations as they floated high up in the air, well out of range of our guns. While we were longing for the balloons that poverty denied us, a genius arose for the occasion and suggested that we send out and gather silk dresses in the Confederacy and make a balloon.

"It was done, and soon we had a great patchwork ship of many and varied hues which was ready for use in the Seven Days' campaign.

"We had no gas except in Richmond, and it was the custom to inflate the balloon there, tie it securely to an engine, and run it down the York River Railroad to any point at which we desired to send it up. One day it was on a steamer down the James River when the tide went out and left vessel and balloon high and dry on a bar. The Federals gathered it in, and with it the last silk dress in the Confederacy. This capture was the meanest trick of the war and one I have never yet forgiven."]



CHINA: AWAKE AND AT WORK

WHAT A LEADER OF THE NEW SOUTH SEES IN THE FAR EAST

BY CLARENCE POE

[Mr. Poe is the editor of the *Progressive Farmer*, of Raleigh, N. C. He is investigating conditions in the Far East, and in the preparation of this article he has been aided by some eminent authorities in the Chinese Empire—Chinese, English, and American. The article was written at Peking.—THE EDITOR]

WITHIN eighteen months China will have a parliament or a revolution (she may have both). Such at least is the prediction I am willing to risk, and it is one which I believe most foreigners in Peking would indorse. And the coming of a parliament, popular government, to guide the destinies of the vast empire over which the Son of Heaven has reigned supreme for more than four thousand years—this is only one chapter in the whole marvelous story, not of China Awakening, but of China Awake. For the breaking with tradition, the acceptance of modern ideas, which but yesterday was a matter of question, is now a matter of history. "China Breaking Up" was the keynote of everything written about the Middle Kingdom ten years ago; "China Waking Up" has been the keynote of everything treating of it these last five years. Now one phrase is almost as obsolete as the other. The breaking-up didn't happen; the waking-up has already happened.

Sir John Jordan, British Minister to China, does not exaggerate when he declares that in a European sense China has made greater progress these last ten years than in the preceding ten centuries. The criticism one hears most often now is, not that the popular leaders are too conservative, but that they are, if anything, too radical; are moving, not too slowly, but too rapidly.

Instead of the old charge that China is unwilling to learn what the West has to teach, I now hear foreigners complain that a little contact with Europe and America gives a leader undue influence. "Let an official take a trip abroad and for six months after his

return he is the most respected authority in the empire." Instead of English missionaries worrying over China's slavery to the opium habit, we now have English officials embarrassed because China's too rapid breaking loose from opium threatens heavy deficits in Indian revenues. Instead of the old extreme "States' Rights" attitude on the part of the provinces, as illustrated by the refusal of the others to aid Manchuria and Chihli in the war with Japan, the beginnings of an intense nationalism are now very clearly in evidence.

Even Confucius no longer looks backward. A young friend of mine who is a descendant of

the Sage (of the seventy-fifth generation) speaks English fluently and is getting a thoroughly modern education, while Duke Kung, who inherits the title in the Confucian line, is patron of a government school which gives especial attention to English and other modern branches—by his direction. Significant, too, is the fact that the ancient examination halls in Peking to which students have come from all parts of the empire, the most learned classical scholars among them re-



MR. CLARENCE POE

warded with the highest offices, have now been torn down, and where these buildings once stood Chinese masons and carpenters are fashioning the building that is to house China's first national parliament—unless the parliament comes before this building can be made ready.

And so it goes. When a man wakes up, he does not wake up in a part of his body only, he wakes up all over. So it seems with Cathay. The more serious problem now is not to get her moving, but to keep her from moving too rapidly. In his Civic Forum address in New York three years ago, Wu Ting Fang quoted Wen Hsiang's saying, "When China wakes up, she will move like an avalanche." A movement with the power of an avalanche needs very careful guidance.

THE COMING NATIONAL PARLIAMENT

The one question about which every Chinese reformer's heart is now aflame is that of an early parliament. By the Imperial Decree of 1908 a parliament and a constitution were promised within nine years. At that time there was little demand for a parliament, but with the organization of the Provincial Assemblies in the fall of 1909 the people were given an opportunity to confer together and were also given a taste of power. For the first time, too, they seem to have realized suddenly the serious plight of the empire and the fact that since the deaths of the late Emperor and Empress Dowager and the dismissal of Yuan Shih-Kai by the Prince Regent acting for the infant Emperor, the Peking government is without a strong leader. Consequently the demand for a hastened parliament has grown too powerful to be resisted. True, when the delegates from all the Provincial Assemblies voiced this demand to the Prince Regent last spring, his reply was the Edict of May 29, declaring that the program outlined by their late Majesties, like the laws of the Medes and Persians, could not be changed. Furthermore, the Throne remarked significantly: "Let no more petitions or memorials upon this subject be presented to Us; Our mind is made up."

Unfortunately for the peace of the Regent, however, John Chinaman is absurdly and obnoxiously persistent on occasion. If you will not heed other appeals, he may commit suicide on your doorstep, and then you are bewitched for the rest of your days, to say nothing of your nights. The talk of an earlier parliament would not down even at the bidding of the Dragon Throne. Quietly un-

manageable delegations waited upon viceroys and compelled these high officials to petition for a reopening of the question. Down in Kiang Su a scholar cut off his left arm and with the red blood wrote his appeal. In Union Medical Hospital, here in Peking, as I write this, a group of students are recovering from self-inflicted wounds made in the same cause. Going to the Prince Regent's, they were told that the Prince could not see them. "Very well," they declared, "we shall sit here till he does." At length the Prince sent word that, though he could not receive them, he would consider their petition, and the students then sliced the living flesh from their arms and thighs as evidence of their earnestness, coloring their petition with their blood.

At this period of our drama there came upon the stage a new actor, at first little heeded, but quickly becoming the dominating figure—the Tzucheng Yuan, or National Assembly. This body, consisting of 100 nobles and men of wealth or scholarship appointed by the Throne, and 100 selected members of Provincial Assemblies approved by the viceroys, was expected to prove a mere echo of the royal wishes. "It is evident that the government is to have a docile and submissive assembly. Mediocrity is the chief characteristic of the members chosen." So wrote one of the best informed Americans in China, some weeks before it assembled, October 3. Even the Reuter's press agent in Peking predicted through his papers that a few pious resolutions would represent the sum total of the Assembly's labors.

And yet the first day that these two gentlemen went with me to look in on the Assembly, we found it coolly demanding that the Grand Council, or imperial cabinet, be summoned before it to explain an alleged breach of the rights of Provincial Assemblies!

From the very beginning the course of this National Assembly in steadily gathering unexpected power to itself has reminded me of the old States-General in France in the days just before the Revolution, and I could not help looking for Danton and Robespierre among the fiery orators in gown and queue on this occasion. Significantly, too, I now hear on the authority of an eminent scholar that Carlyle's great masterpiece is the most popular work of historical literature ever translated into Chinese. May it teach them some lessons of restraint as well as aggressiveness!

Be that as it may, the Assembly has proved untamable in its demands for an early parliament, not even the hundred government members standing up against the imperious



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

BURNING OPIUM PIPES IN MODERN CHINA

(An incident of the anti-opium crusade)

pressure of public opinion. In late October the Assembly unanimously petitioned the Throne to hasten the program of constitutional government. The day this petition was presented it was currently rumored in Peking that unless the Prince Regent should yield the people would refuse to pay taxes. But he yielded. The trouble now is that he did not yield enough to satisfy the public, and there is every indication that he will have to yield again, in spite of the alleged unalterableness of the present plan which allows a parliament in 1913 instead of in 1916, as originally promised. A parliament within eighteen months seems a safe prediction as I write this.

It also seems safe to prophesy that the powers of the parliament will be wisely used. In local affairs the Chinese practically established the rule of the people centuries before any European nation adopted the idea. Nominally, the local magistrate has had almost arbitrary power, but practically the control has been in the hands of the village elders. When they have met and decided on a policy, the magistrate has not dared run counter to it. In much the same fashion, governors and viceroys of provinces have been controlled and kept in check. Thus centuries of practical self-government in local affairs have

given the Chinese excellent preparation for the new departure in national affairs. What is proposed is not a new power for the people but only an enlargement or extension of powers they already exercise.

THE SUCCESSFUL WAR AGAINST OPIUM

Parliamentary government is the one great accomplishment the Chinese people are now interested in, because they propose to make it the tool with which to work out the other Herculean tasks that await them. Happy are they in that they may set about these tasks inspired by the self-confidence begotten of one of the greatest moral achievements of modern times. I refer, of course, to the almost marvelous success of their anti-opium crusade.

It has been only five years, I believe, since Mr. Alleyne Ireland in his book, "The Far Eastern Tropics," declared: "If 300 years of contact with the Chinese has taught one lesson more thoroughly than another, it is that no legislation, no measures of repression, however severe, can turn the Chinaman from opium smoking and gambling." For expressing such an opinion at that time no criticism whatever can be made of Mr. Ireland. All the wise men of the earth said the same thing.

Moreover, when the Edict of 1906 came out declaring a ten years' war against opium, all well-informed people regarded it as a joke. Many of the officials entrusted with the duty of enforcing the edict also thought it would prove a farce. But when high dignitaries began to lose their official heads for failing to rid themselves of the habit, and other high officials for failure to prosecute the crusade whole-heartedly, their ideas changed. In many provinces now not a poppy seed sprouts from year's end to year's end, and a member of the Grand Council tells me that 95 per cent. of the officials who were formerly opium smokers have quit, while the other 5 per cent. indulge only in secret, the Damocles sword of removal hanging ever above their heads as the penalty of discovery. Let an official be caught, and very soon thereafter you will read in the *Official Gazette* some such notice as the following:

The Viceroy of Chihli, Chen Kuichung, and the Deputy Lieutenant-General of Shanghai Kwan, Ju Linhai, have presented a joint memorial recommending that Expectant District Police-Master Wan Li-hsun, who has failed to rid himself of the opium habit, be cashiered and never allowed to reënter the public service.

The reform among officials, however, the cashiering of the unrepentant smokers, and the fact that right here in Peking two or three officials died as a result of quitting the habit too suddenly, do not afford the best illustration of the earnestness with which China has prosecuted what was planned as a ten years' war, but may now prove only a five or six years' war if England is but willing to give the empire the right to prohibit opium importations. The greatest sacrifices have been made by the farmers. Dr. C. D. Tenney, of the American Legation, is my authority for the statement that in the provinces of Shansi and Yunnan land values in some cases have decreased as much as 75 per cent. by reason of the farmers having to stop poppy culture. On these particular lands other crops are only one-fourth as profitable. Mortgages made on the basis of old land values have been foreclosed; owning peasants have had to sacrifice their ancestral homes, but China has thought no price too great to pay in her effort to free her people from their ancient curse.

Mr. Frederick Ward, who has just returned from a visit to many provinces, finding in all the same surprising success in enforcing anti-opium regulations, declares: "It is the miracle of the Middle Kingdom and a lesson for the world." Not without reason did His Ex-

cellency Tang Shao-yi, Director of Posts and Communications, declare to me: "Let America try to stop drinking among 100,000,000 people, and she will then understand China's stupendous achievement in stopping opium-smoking among four times that number."

CHINA'S RIGHT-ABOUT-FACE IN EDUCATION

China's next great task is the education of her people, and the remedy for pessimism here is to compare her present condition, not with that of other nations, but with her own condition ten years ago. A reported school attendance of less than one million (780,325 to be exact) in a population of 400,000,000 does not look encouraging, but when we compare these figures with the statistics of attendance a few years ago, there is unmistakable evidence of progress. In the metropolitan province of Chihli, for example, I have found there are now more teachers in government schools than there were pupils six years ago, and the total attendance has grown from 8,000 to 214,637!

Even, if China had not established a single additional school, however, or increased the school attendance by even a percentage fraction, her educational progress these last ten years would yet be monumental. For as different as the East is from the West, so different, in literal fact, are her educational ideals at the present time as compared with her educational ideals a decade ago. At one fell blow (by the Edict of 1905) the old exclusively classical and literary system of education was swept away, made sacred though it was by the traditions of unnumbered centuries. Unfortunately the work of putting the new policies into effect was entrusted to the slow and bungling hands of the old literati; but this was a necessary stroke of policy, for without their support the new movement would have been hopelessly balked.

The old education taught nothing of science, nothing of history or geography outside of China, nothing of mathematics in its higher branches. Its main object was to enable the scholar to write a learned essay or a faultless poem, its main use to enable him by these means to get office. Under the old system the Chinese boy learned a thousand characters before he learned their meaning; after this he took up a book containing a list of all the surnames in the empire and the "Trimetrical Classics," consisting of proverbs, and historical statements with each sentence in three characters. Now he is taught in much the same way as the Western boy. The old



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

YOUNG CHINESE ATHLETES OF THE NEW RÉGIME, WITH THEIR WESTERN TEACHER

training developed the powers of memory; the new training, the powers of reasoning. The old education enabled the pupil to frame exquisite sentences; the new gives him a working knowledge of the world. The old looked inward to China and backward to her past; the new looks outward to other countries and forward to China's future. The old was meant to develop a few scholarly officials; the new, to develop many useful citizens. "Even our students who go abroad," as a Peking official said to me, "illustrate the new tendencies. Formerly they preferred to study law or politics; now they take up engineering or mining."

A consideration of Chinese education, however brief, would not be fair without mention of the crushing handicap under which her people labor and must always labor so long as the language remains as it is to-day—without an alphabet, a separate and arbitrary character to be learned for each and every word in the language. This means an absolute waste of at least five years in the pupil's school life, except in so far as memorizing the characters counts as memory-training, and five years make up the bulk of the average student's school days in any country. If it were not for this handicap and the serious difficulty of finding teachers enough for present needs, it would be impossible to set limits to the educational advance of the next twenty years.

The school and the teacher have always been held in the highest esteem in China. Her only aristocracy has been an aristocracy, not of wealth, but of scholarship; her romance has been, not that of the poor boy who became rich, but of the poor boy who found a way to get an education and become distin-

guished in public service. Under the old system, if the son of a hard-working family became noted for aptness in the village school, if the schoolmaster marked him for a boy of unusual promise, the rest of the family, with a devotion beautiful to see, would sacrifice their own pleasure for his advancement. He would be put into long robes and allowed to give himself up wholly to learning, while parents, brothers and sisters found inspiration for their own harder labors in the thought of the bright future that awaited him. The difficulty is that education has been regarded as the privilege of a gifted few, not as the right of all. In a land where scholarship has been held in such high favor, however, once let the school doors open to everybody and there is little doubt that China will eventually acquire the strength more essential than armies or battleships: the power which only an educated common people can give.

BUILDING UP AN ARMY

China's next great purpose is to develop an efficient army. "Might is right" is the English proverb that I have found more often on the tongues of the new school of Chinese than any other; and we must confess that other nations seem to have tried hard enough to accept the principle. In the old days there was a saying, "Better have no son than one who is a soldier." To-day its new foreign-drilled army of 150,000 to 200,000 men is the boast of the Middle Kingdom, and the army is said to be the most honestly administered department of the government. In sharp contrast to the old contempt for the soldier, I now find one of the ablest journals in the

empire (the *Shanghai National Review*) protesting that interest in military training is now becoming too intense: "Scarce a school of any pretensions but has its military drill, extending in some instances as far as equipment with modern rifles and regular range practice, and we regret to notice that some of the mission schools have so far forgotten themselves as to pander to this militarist spirit."

It has often been said, of course, that the Chinese will not make good soldiers, but whether this has been proved is open to question. Certainly, in view of their wretchedly inferior equipment, their failure to distinguish themselves in the war with Japan cannot be regarded as conclusive. Take, for example, this description by an eye witness: "Every tenth man (among the Chinese soldiers) had a great silk banner, but few were armed with modern weapons. Those who had rifles and modern weapons at all had them of all makes; so cartridges of twenty different sorts and sizes were huddled together without any attempt at classification, and in one open space all sorts were heaped on the ground, and the soldiers were fitting them to their arms, sometimes trying eight or ten before finding one to fit the weapon, throwing the rejected ones back in the heap." No sort of efficiency on the part of the rank and file could have atoned for such criminal indifference to equipment on the part of the officers. It seems to be the opinion of the military authorities with whom I have talked that the Chinese army is now better manned than officered. "Wherever there has been a breach of discipline, I have found it the officer's fault," an American soldier told me.

The annexation of Korea, once China's vassal, by Japan and that country's steadily tightening grip on Manchuria have doubtless quickened China's desire for military strength. Moreover, she wishes to grow strong enough to denounce the treaties by which opium is even now forced upon her against her will, and by which she is forced to keep her tariff duty on foreign goods averaging 5 per cent., alike on luxuries and necessities.

ATTACKING THE GRAFT SYSTEM

The fifth among China's herculean labors is the cleansing of her Augean stables, and by this I can mean nothing else than the abolition of the system of "squeeze," or graft, on the part of her officials. In fact, no other reform can be complete until this is accomplished. The bulk of every officer's receipts

comes not from his salary, which is as a rule absurdly small, but from "squeezes"—fees which every man who has dealings with him must pay. In most cases, of course, these fees have been determined in a general way by long usage, but their acceptance opens the way for innumerable abuses. High offices are auctioned off. When I was in Manchuria it was currently reported that the Governor of Kirin had paid one hundred thousand taels for his office. When I was in Newchwang the Viceroy of Manchuria had just enriched himself to the extent of several thousand taels by a visit to that port: The men who had had favors from him or had favors to ask left "presents" of a rather substantial character when they called. I learn from an excellent authority that when an electric lighting contract was let for Hankow, or its suburbs, a short time ago, the officials provided a squeeze for themselves of 10 per cent. but that the Nanking officials, in arranging for electric lights there, didn't even seem to care whether the plant worked at all or not: they were anxious only to make a contract which would net them 35 per cent. of the gross amount! Under such circumstances it is not surprising to learn that many an office involving the handling of government revenues has its price as definitely known as the price of stocks or bonds.

In private business the Chinese have a reputation for honesty which almost any other nation might envy. With their quickened spirit of patriotism they will doubtless see to it that their public business is relieved of the shameless disgrace that now attaches to it.

MAKING OVER THE COUNTRY'S CURRENCY

The reform of the currency is another vastly important matter to which only a few words can be given here. It is intimately connected with the system of "squeeze" because it is the custom of Chinese officials to profit largely by the manipulation of exchange both in receiving and disbursing moneys. This, however, is only one of a hundred evils for which the chaotic condition of China's momentary affairs is responsible.

There is no national currency. Each province coins its own money. Banks have issued notes at will. Wild-cat corporations for a time had the same privilege. There is a nominal unit of values—the silver tael, or ounce—but even the taels vary in weight and fineness, so that taels of eight different kinds and values are used in financial reckonings in

Peking! When you have grasped the significance of this fact, however, coupled with the fact that the actual value of each tael varies from day to day with the fluctuations in the price of silver, you are only at the beginning of the confusion worse confounded. The actual currency of the country is not taels and fractions of taels, but dollars and cents (silver standard values) and copper "cash." Now as the silver 20-cent pieces in common circulation do not contain quite one-fifth as much silver as the dollar pieces in common circulation, nor the 5 and 10-cent pieces quite one-twentieth and one-tenth respectively, it takes 110 cents or more "small coin" to equal 100 cents of the large coinage. Then the copper cent is worth not quite so much as a silver cent, so it takes 11 cents, or more, of copper to equal 10 cents silver. And lastly the copper "cash" is also of variable value with reference to every other form of currency, though usually worth about a tenth of a cent.

Under such circumstances it is plain that there must be innumerable occasions when money of one kind must be changed into money of another kind, and each time some of the coin sticks to the money changer's fingers as a more or less legitimate exchange commission. Each time, too, the bank goes through the imaginary process of converting a tael of one kind into the particular kind of tael it recognizes, exchange must be paid. Moreover, exchange deducted, and then converted into whatever form of local currency is wanted, and another exchange fee sliced off. A bank will even discount bills issued by another branch of the same corporation. Go to the Hankow branch of the Russian Asiatic Bank, for example, with a \$5 note issued by the Peking branch, and you get \$4.80 for it. Other banks have the same policy.

I should certainly be unwilling to concede the fact of China's awakening if she were not setting about a reform of so absurd a system—or lack of system. And in cleaning house, she might as well make a thorough job of it by putting the gold standard into effect as early as possible.

RAILROADS, POSTS, AND TELEGRAPHS

These are some of the big new tasks to which awakened China is addressing herself. Of course, the continued development of her railways is no less important than any other matter I have mentioned, but railway building cannot be regarded as one of China's really new tasks. For years she has been alive

to the importance of uniting the people of the different provinces by means of more railways, more telegraph lines, and better postal service. The increase in number of pieces of mail handled from 20,000,000 pieces in 1902 to 306,000,000 in the last fiscal year, bears eloquent testimony alike to the progress of the post office and to the growing intelligence of the people. By telegraph the people of remotest Cathay now make their wishes known to the Son of Heaven and the Tzu-cheng Yuan; it was by telephone that this Tzucheng Yuan, or National Assembly, requested the Grand Council of the Dragon Empire to appear before it on the day of my first visit. The slow and stately camel caravans still come down from Mongolia to Peking—I have seen them wind their serpentine length through the gates of the Great Wall at Nankou as they have been doing for centuries past—but no longer do they bring the latest news from the tribes about Desert Gobi. Across 3,500 miles of its barren wastes an undaunted telegraph line now "hums the songs of the glad parts of the earth."

AMERICA'S RELATIONS WITH CHINA

It is no longer worth while to speculate upon the probability of a New China; the question now is as to how the New China is going to affect the United States and the rest of the world. From our Pacific Coast, China is our next-door neighbor, and vastly nearer in fact than any map has ever indicated. Even New York City is now nearer to Shanghai and Hong Kong, in point of ease of access, than she was to Chicago a century ago. How Japan's awakening has increased that country's foreign trade all the world knows,—and China has eight times the population of Japan proper, and twenty-eight times the area, with almost fabulously valuable natural resources as yet untouched! Some one has said that to raise the Chinese standard of living to that of our own people would be (from the standpoint of markets) equivalent to the creation of four Americas. The importance of bringing about closer commercial relations between the United States and the Middle Kingdom can hardly be overestimated.

It is to be hoped, however, that in our desire to cultivate China's friendship, we shall not go to the length of changing our policy of excluding Asiatic immigration. To the thoughtful student, it must be plain that in the end such a change would lead only to disastrous reaction. At the same time we might well effect a change in our methods of enforce-

ing that policy. There is nothing else on land or sea that the Celestial so much dreads as to "lose face," to be humiliated, and it is the humiliation that attaches to the exclusion policy rather than the policy itself that is the great stumbling-block in the way of thorough cordial relations with America. You wouldn't so much object to having the servant at the door report his master not at home to visitors, but you would object to having the door slammed in your face; and John Chinaman is just about as human as the rest of us. Moreover, our own friendliness for John should lead us to adopt the more courteous of these two methods. Why should not our next exclusion law, therefore, be based upon the idea of reciprocity, and provide that there shall be admitted into America any year only so many Chinese laborers as there were American laborers admitted in China the preceding year.

Finally, it must always be remembered, that the awakening of China is a matter far more profound than any statistics of exports or imports or railway lines, or industrial de-

velopment. The Dragon Empire cannot become (as she will) one of the mightiest powers of the earth, her four hundred million people cannot be brought (as they will be brought) into the full current of the world's activities, without profoundly influencing all future civilization. For its own sake Christendom should seize quickly the opportunity offered by the present period of flux and change to help mold the new force that it must henceforth forever reckon with. "The remedy for the yellow peril, whatever that may be," as Mr. Roosevelt said while President, "is not the repression of life, but the cultivation and direction of life." The school, the mission, the newspaper—these are the agencies that should be used. Japan has thousands of teachers in China and scores of newspapers, but no other nation is adequately active. The present kindly feeling for America guarantees an especially cordial reception for American teachers, ministers, and writers, and those who feel the call to lands other than their own cannot find a more promising field than China.



A MODERN STEEL-MANUFACTURING CENTER IN CHINA

(The Hanyang Steel and Iron Works in Hankow)



A NEW YORK BLOCK OF MODEL TENEMENTS ON THE UPPER EAST SIDE

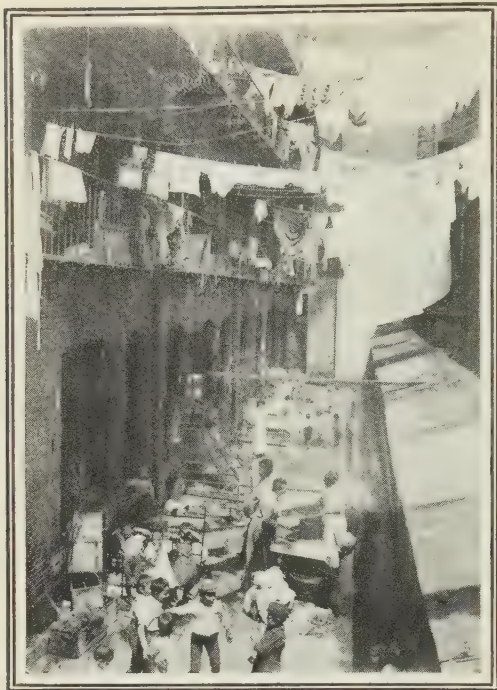
(The Bishop Henry C. Potter Memorial Buildings in Seventy-ninth Street. These up-to-date buildings offer a refreshing contrast to the old-time tenements of New York's lower East Side)

CONGESTION IN CITIES AND THE HOUSING PROBLEM

BY EDWARD HALE BRUSH

THE discussion of the housing problem in the cities and of the advantages of suburban or country life is occupying an amount of attention just now that is significant. In the City of New York, which has a population of nearly five millions, as shown by the new census, interest in the subject is acute, partly because of the work completed or contemplated in the way of transit improvements, partly because of the activity of various societies and commissions organized to promote in numerous ways the common municipal welfare. Such societies as the Greater New York Taxpayers' Conference, the Brooklyn League, the Women's Municipal League of Brooklyn, the Allied Real Estate Interests of the City of New York, and such enterprises as the budget exhibits which have become annual features of the opening of the winter season in New York, owing chiefly to the work of these societies, have done much to direct attention to the various aspects of the better housing question. One result of this activity was the creation by the Mayor, on the authority of the Board of Aldermen, of a commission on congestion which for several months has been investigating the question, giving to it perhaps the most broad and thorough study which a body of such a nature in this country has ever bestowed upon a subject. Its report will be awaited with interest by students of sociology and municipal affairs in the hope that it may contain recommendations and suggestions the execution of which will go far to relieve the intolerable situation in respect to congestion which has so long existed in New York and some other large American cities.

Justice Charles E. Hughes of the United States Supreme Court, just before leaving the governorship of the Empire State to take his seat on the federal bench, appointed a



TENEMENT CONDITIONS IN THE NEW YORK OF
YESTERDAY

(In the old days this was the way women worked and children played. To the right is a school sink with twenty-five compartments, practically in the children's playground and not twenty-five feet from the building to the left)

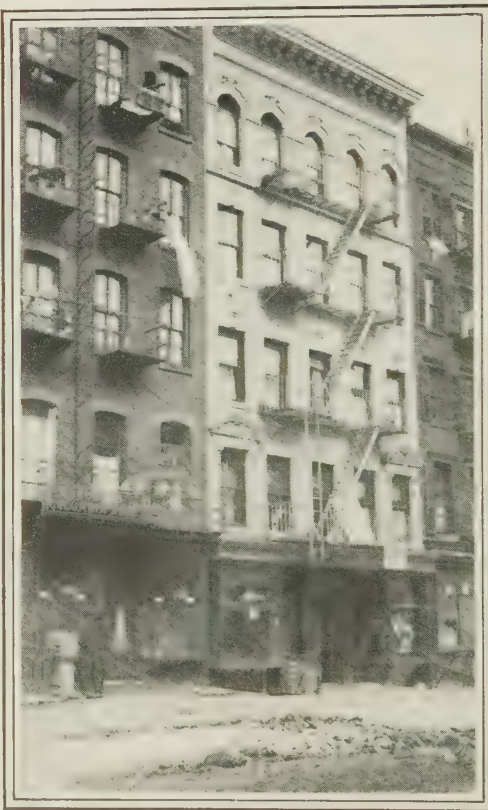
State Commission on Distribution of Population. This State Commission will report about February 1 and the city commission about a month later.

Perhaps it may be said that the problem of congestion and better housing is being attacked in two ways, one solution being sought through spreading the population and luring it to the suburbs, or the farms beyond, where this is possible, and where it is not possible or feasible seeking a solution through substitution of good homes in the city's center for bad or indifferent ones. In the natural course of things, as the lure of the land becomes stronger and more compelling and more and more families of all classes discover the attractions of life in the country or suburbs the problem of city congestion will grow less and less difficult and there will be less demand for "model tenements," Mills Hotels; and similar devices of sociologists and philanthropists to meet the peculiar conditions of the present age. But in spite of the new and vast Pennsylvania-Long Island transit system, bringing communities fifteen miles away within half an hour of the "heart of New York," in spite of the McAdoo system of tubes and the Inter-

borough Subway with its contemplated extensions, it is probable that the problem of better housing will remain a difficult and urgent one for some time to come in Manhattan Borough and in some parts of Brooklyn and the Bronx.

It is said by those competent to make the comparison that New York's tenement problem is infinitely more urgent than London's, though we are accustomed to think of conditions in the English metropolis as worse than those in the American. However this may be, it is a fact that in the former more than one hundred million dollars have been invested in improved homes for wage-earners, while in the latter the amount so invested is probably only a fraction of that sum.

Space will not permit the description here of the long and often stubbornly fought battle for better housing in New York through laws compelling landlords to make better provision for their tenants and protecting the latter against inhuman and cruel greed. In general it may be said that because of the per-



WHAT LAW ENFORCEMENT HAS DONE

(At the left old-style "front-and-rear" tenement and fire-escape like those constructed before the passage of the new law. To the right the new tenement with the fire-escape required by the present law)

sistent campaign made in behalf of better housing for the poor the average New York tenement, while not yet model, shows great improvement over the days when such matters as the health and morals of tenement dwellers were left to care pretty much for themselves. There has been much advancement in the matter of sanitary standards, substitution of apartments with light and air for the "black holes" so long a disgrace to the metropolis, reduction in number of tenants to a given space, decrease in mortality rates, provision of fire escapes, bath and toilet and laundry facilities, and in giving the children a better chance for health and long life.

Yet in spite of what has been done in all these ways, conditions in respect to congestion are still so bad in "Little Old New York" that Stanley D. Ashmead, head of the department of civic design of Liverpool and an authority on sociology, in addressing New York's congestion commission declared that overcrowding is two thirds greater in the largest of American cities than in any city of Europe. He thinks the solution of the problem to consist in the removal of all factories and industrial lines of business out of the restricted area of Manhattan wherever such activities can just as well be carried on else-



VIEW OF A THREE-ROOM SUITE IN ONE OF THE CITY AND SUBURBAN HOMES COMPANY'S MODEL TENEMENTS

(Showing how tastefully such apartments, renting for about \$4.50 a week, may be fitted up)

where. However desirable such a result as this, it is obvious its accomplishment is a long way off. Mr. Ashmead urged New York to adopt the coöperative methods now so much in vogue in such British cities as Glasgow, Manchester and Birmingham, which have led to so many workmen living in better homes and in a large proportion of cases owning them.

A MODEL SUBURBAN DEVELOPMENT

This is precisely what is being done already through the operation of the City and Suburban Homes Company, and it is on such lines that the Russell Sage Foundation Homes Company proposes to work in enabling wage-earners to own homes in the suburbs, its plan being the most elaborate of the kind yet devised and carried to execution in this country. The Foundation Homes Company is a branch of the Sage Foundation. In carrying out its plans the company purchased a tract of about 150 acres, partly wooded, lying along the Long Island Railroad at Forest Hills,



A TOP-FLOOR KITCHEN OF LOWER EAST SIDE, NEW YORK



HOUSES AT FOREST HILLS GARDENS, LONG ISLAND, DESIGNED FOR THE SAGE FOUNDATION
HOMES COMPANY

(A group of ten 17-foot single-family dwellings, 6 to 8 rooms)

about six miles from Long Island City and three from Jamaica. The scenery at present is rural and with the kind of development anticipated should remain essentially so for years to come. The company has undertaken to establish a suburban community where wage-earners of the more intelligent and better paid class can make their homes, either renting rooms or apartments or houses from the company or becoming through its help the owners of homes themselves. The location is well inside the city limits and hardly five miles from where the Pennsylvania's new tubes, after passing under the Hudson, Manhattan Borough, and the East River, come to the surface again. The plans are not in all respects fully developed, but work has already been started on some of the buildings which will form the civic center of this community of model homes. Grouped about the station square are buildings containing non-house-keeping apartments for both men and women. Here single men and women of moderate income can live cheaply and enjoy country life without going far from the scene of their employment in the metropolis or its environs.

Besides these buildings there will be apart-

ment houses for families, built so that all rooms will have plenty of light and air, together with the conveniences now expected in all first-class flats. There will also be detached and semi-detached houses. These will be rented at as low rates or sold on as easy terms as is compatible with a business operation conducted on a conservative basis, so that no skilled mechanic of industrious and frugal habits or clerk of small but dependable salary need hesitate to embark on the home-owning enterprise. Streets have been laid out on artistic lines so as to preserve the natural aspect of the tract as far as possible, following the plans of the landscape architect, Frederick Law Olmsted, the building plans being the work of Grosvenor Atterbury.

A BUSINESS ENTERPRISE, NOT A CHARITY

The promoters of Forest Hills Gardens, as the new model town will be known, emphasize the fact that the project is not a charity, nor will it be feasible for the day laborer or lower paid mechanic to live here. Possibly the Sage Foundation will make provision for the needs of this class later on, but it is not



A GROUP OF MORE AMBITIOUS HOUSES AT FOREST HILLS GARDENS, FIFTEEN MINUTES FROM THE
NEW PENNSYLVANIA STATION IN NEW YORK CITY

(Nine 26-foot single-family dwellings, 10 to 12 rooms)



STATION SQUARE, FOREST HILLS GARDENS, DESIGNED FOR THE SAGE FOUNDATION HOMES COMPANY

(Stores and non-housekeeping apartments)

practicable to do so at this location. While a large proportion of the land area to be developed will be sold without building improvements, the Homes Company, in order to set a standard and control more surely the architectural character of the future town, has planned to erect and hold, certainly for a time, a large number of dwellings. To this end plans have been prepared for an initial operation contemplating ten different groups of buildings, involving an expenditure of a million and a quarter dollars. The majority of those to be erected in this first operation, which will be largely confined to the more expensive and central property, are in the form of contiguous houses. The detached and semi-detached types of dwellings of various grades and sizes will be possible only on the less central and lower priced portions of the property. The groups in detail will be as follows:

Group 1. Station Square, including a railroad station and a group of buildings adjoining containing shops, offices, a restaurant, and accommodations for some 300 or 400 people, consisting mainly

of small non-housekeeping apartments for men and women, in connection with which a squash court and a number of small studios are provided.

Group 2. A block of small single-family houses with 13 feet frontage, two or three stories in height and containing four rooms and bath.

Group 3. A block of single-family houses with 17 feet frontage, two stories and attic, seven to nine rooms and bath.

Group 4. A block of ten single-family houses, with 17 feet frontage, two stories in height, five rooms and bath.

Group 5. A block of single-family houses with 20 feet frontage, two stories and attic in height and containing six to eight rooms and bath.

Group 6. Three blocks of single-family houses with 20 feet frontage, two stories and attic in height, containing eight to ten rooms and two baths.

Group 7. Three blocks of single-family houses with 26 feet frontage, three stories in height, containing ten to twelve rooms, baths and toilets.

Group 8. A block of workshops and flats, with 20 feet frontage and two or three stories in height, the former containing workshops or stores with three rooms and bath above them, the latter a workshop or store on street level and six rooms and bath in the upper stories.

Group 9. A row of semi-detached houses on shallow lots and having 50 feet frontage, designed for two families, houses having two stories and

each unit consisting of six rooms and bath, all on one floor.

Group 10. A row of semi-detached two family houses on lots with $27\frac{1}{2}$ frontage, two stories in height, each unit containing five or six rooms and bath, all on one floor.

In speaking of the plans Mr. Atterbury says: "From an architectural point of view our greatest opportunity—apart from certain novel uses of material and methods of construction—will lie in that general harmony of design which is possible only where the entire scheme of development is laid out and executed under such a system of coöperation by the various experts as in the work for the Russell Sage Foundation at Forest Hills Gardens."

Edward H. Bouton, president of the Roland Park Company of Baltimore, is vice-president and general manager of the company, and associated with him on the development committee are John M. Glenn, general director of the Sage Foundation; Alfred T. White, William E. Harmon, and Robert W. DeForest, vice-president of the Sage Foundation.

A CITY CLUB FOR SINGLE WOMEN

The City and Suburban Homes Company was organized in 1896 and in that year and about a year later the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* published two most interesting articles by Dr. Elgin R. L. Gould, its president, describing its aims, especially the plans for model tenements and its suburban colony, Homewood. What Dr. Gould then said was largely of an anticipatory nature. One can speak now both of the past achievements of the society and its plans for the future, which is especially apropos in view of the fact that it has in the past year brought to the stage of completion three new improvements and started operations on two more. One of the latter is the Junior League Building, including a residential club and a second section designed for single women who wish to do light house-keeping. Work on the residential club has just been begun. As the company has gone on from the construction of one building to another it has naturally gained in experience and has elaborated its scheme, bringing in more and more of the things affecting the common welfare of the people occupying its habitations. In none of the City and Suburban Homes Company's tenements are there any airshaft bedrooms, dark kitchens, dark stairs and halls, water closets on stairs or "shake-your-hand" airshafts. Such features have brought the old-style tenements into condem-

nation. Under the new Tenement House law, passed in 1901, many of the abuses of old-time tenements, such as dumbbell shafts and dark stairways, rooms without light and air, have been largely abrogated in all new tenement buildings. The model tenements erected by the City and Suburban Homes Company before the passage of the law anticipated its provisions and set a precedent for them, and the newer buildings have kept pace with progress in housing science. In general they have fireproof construction and, instead of narrow airshafts, large courts, 25 to 30 feet wide, furnishing plenty of light and air to apartments opening on them, steam heat from a heating plant supplying all apartments of the same building, ample toilet and bath provisions and adequate laundry conveniences.

NEW BLOCKS OF MODEL TENEMENTS

Of the three model tenements brought to practical completion in the past year one is for colored people in West Sixty-third Street, and the other two are a group of two buildings in East Seventy-eighth Street and four in Seventy-ninth. The latter are known as the "Bishop Henry C. Potter Memorial Buildings," part of the proceeds of the capital stock used in their direction having been subscribed by the immediate family and a few friends of the late Bishop, who was greatly interested in the work of the company. There is a tablet to his memory on one of the buildings. With the completion of the projects now under way in Manhattan and Brooklyn boroughs the company will be owning eight groups of buildings of the nature of model tenements and one model suburb, Homewood. It also manages the two Phipps Model Tenements, that for white tenants in East Thirty-first Street and that for colored people on the West Side, and also a great deal of old tenement property owned by various persons. It has two model tenements of its own for colored people, both being well conducted and paying enterprises. The company's experience with colored tenants has been gratifying. Speaking of the "Tuskegee," the first building erected for them, President Gould said: "The company's experience with its own 'Tuskegee,' and in the management of Phipps Houses No. 2, furnishes such a satisfactory record for colored people as tenants that sanguine expectations for these new apartments are entertained."

One of the largest of the company's properties, the estate at First Avenue and East

Sixty-fourth Street, has a frontage of 1026 feet, built up with handsome brick structures containing eight stores and 861 apartments. There are 285 two-room apartments, 392 three-room apartments, and 184 of four rooms each.

The success of the company in carrying out its policies in all these buildings has of course been due in large measure to the wisdom and tact of its officers, notably Dr. Gould and the enthusiastic and broad-minded secretary of the society, George W. R. Fallon, and the unfailing support of its fine board of directors, of whom Mr. R. Fulton Cutting is chairman. The more the subject is studied the better the lessons have been learned. In newer buildings improvements are noticed not seen in those first built. The Bishop Potter tenements have entrances that are quite imposing from an architectural point of view; there are tiled floors of attractive design, marble walls and stairways, and polished brass letter boxes. The entrances look more like those of a fashionable apartment than of a tenement. Yet here one finds families who pay less for apartments than is sometimes paid in New York rooming houses for back-hall bedrooms. A



TYPE OF COMBINATION DINING-ROOM AND KITCHEN IN A MODEL TENEMENT

three-room flat is not as ample quarters as could be desired, no doubt, yet with orderly habits, care and taste such an apartment can be kept in a way to make it a real home. With the complete heating, cooking, and laundry conveniences provided housekeeping is made comparatively simple and the labor incident to it reduced to a minimum. Prices of suites in these buildings range from \$1.75 to \$5.50 per week, according to the number of rooms and their location and arrangement.

Although space will not permit extended description here, a word should be said as to such model tenements in Manhattan as the Vanderbilt houses, with their special safeguards against tuberculosis, the Foote-Tri-Court tenement, the buildings of the New York Fire-proof Tenement Company, and the Phipps Model Tenements, Nos. 1 and 2, especially that in East Thirty-first Street, with its spacious court, roof garden and fine accommodations at almost back-hall bedroom rates. This and the other Phipps tenement, for colored tenants, are under the management of the City and Suburban Homes Company, though they are not owned by it.



THE CITY AND SUBURBAN HOMES COMPANY'S MODEL TENEMENT AT AVENUE A AND EAST SIXTY-THIRD STREET, NEW YORK CITY

HOMEWOOD: A COMMUNITY OF HOME OWNERS

It is the aim of the company to provide wage-earners with good homes in or near the city's center while at the same time educating them as to the advantages and health-



ONE OF THE HOUSES AT HOMEWOOD, DEVELOPED BY
THE CITY AND SUBURBAN HOMES COMPANY

(This house cost less than \$4000 on easy payments and is worth half as much again now)

fulness of suburban life. Its suburban settlement, Homewood, is no longer an experiment but a demonstrated success. Located about a mile from Bath Beach and within half an hour's ride from the City Hall, Manhattan, the situation is advantageous and will be still more so when the Fourth Avenue subway, now under construction, is completed and the time required to reach the district is cut in half. Homewood is a place where two-story one-family houses, with all improvements, can be rented for as low as \$19 per month, and the head of a family who is prompt in paying his rent gets a ticket to Manhattan by the elevated road thrown in as a bonus, which really reduces the monthly rental by \$2.40. However, it is not altogether a workingmen's community and the streets look rather like those of a fashionable suburb. Most of the houses are owned by the occupants and few are for sale.

Hedges are well kept, many houses have vine-clad verandas or porches, and the proportion of yards having flower gardens is greater than in any suburb I ever saw where

the householders were people of moderate means, not able to employ gardeners for the care of their grounds. An English type of architecture prevails, with brick and shingles as the most common materials of construction. In architecture there is enough variety of style to avoid the monotony which is the bane of so many suburban settlements.

Homewood covers some thirty-two acres of land and the tract is now valued at about \$1,500,000, though the original investment in real estate represented a much smaller sum. The average price at which houses were sold some years ago was \$3800, but many who paid such a price are asking from \$6000 to \$7000 for their property now, and few are anxious to sell even at considerable advance, so well are they satisfied with their homes. In general these home owners obtained their houses by the payment of 10 per cent. down, twenty years being given them if desired in which to pay for their property, the company giving each purchaser a deed and taking an instalment mortgage for the remaining 90 per cent. of the price. The uniform sum paid in monthly was calculated so as to pay out the principal of the mortgage in twenty years with legal interest on deferred payments. Most home owners here have been anxious to pay for their homes faster than required, but the unusually liberal conditions were made because the objects of the company were home-making rather than speculative profit-seeking. Purchasers at Homewood need not remain debtors of the company for the entire twenty-year period, and after establishing a reasonable equity have generally found it easy to obtain at a low interest rate a loan covering the unpaid balance. A feature of the scheme is a life-insurance plan which protects both the company and the purchaser.

Some enterprises in the way of model homes have failed for lack of adaptability to the real needs of the people for whom they were intended. Their promoters went too much on theory. The result has been otherwise in the case of the model homes, whether apartments or houses, erected by the City and Suburban Homes Company. The wage-earning population of the great city has shown its appreciation of them. The proportion of vacancies in the model tenement buildings is only about one-half of one per cent. during three-fourths of the year. Losses from bad debts have averaged the remarkably low figure of one-third of one per cent. The result of the experiment demonstrates convincingly that the building of improved homes may under proper management afford



HOUSES AT HOMEWOOD WHICH RENT FOR ABOUT \$20 A MONTH

a fair return upon the investment. During the past fiscal year two dividends, each at the rate of two per cent., were paid to stockholders.

It will thus be seen that the model homes, whether city or suburban, of this company, have proved a success. But the question recurs whether the people they are mainly designed to benefit—the wage-earners and struggling toilers who though on small incomes try to live in a self-respecting way—take advantage of them. A brief but comprehensive answer is given in the company's last annual report, a paragraph of which reads: "These buildings shelter each year a larger proportion of our foreign-born population, and it may be that they will become

more and more a halting station, with badly congested tenement environment as the starting point and wholesome suburban life as the goal. The company's tenants as a whole are more self-respecting than the average tenement dwellers, but they are not on the average more prosperous. The statement frequently made that model tenements become the homes of people who can afford to pay higher rentals is not true so far as the experience of this company with its own buildings is concerned." It should not be inferred, however, that the tenants of the model tenements are all poor or lacking in education and culture. Many cultured people are found among the tenants, people who would by no means wish to be considered objects of charity.



SOLVING THE HOUSING PROBLEM IN AN ENGLISH MANUFACTURING SUBURB

(Cottages at Bournville, the seat of the chocolate industry, five miles from Birmingham)

THE REAPPORTIONMENT OF THE HOUSE

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG

HOW many members of our national House of Representatives are to sit under the gavel of Champ Clark (or somebody else) during the ten years beginning on March 4, 1913? Nobody at present can tell, but very soon it will be the business of Congress to determine. If to anybody the fixing of the number sounds like a simple proposition, let him not be deceived. Whatever else it may or may not be, our decennial reshuffle of congressional seats, consequent upon the taking of the census, is a high game of politics, and for weeks already the politicians have been cudgeling their brains in the attempt to figure out the intricate possibilities of it.

The first question, naturally, that will have to be settled is that of the time at which the new apportionment shall be made. On this point the Constitution is not explicit. It simply says that "Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers," to be ascertained by the decennial enumeration. Actual practice in the matter has varied. Until 1890 the reapportionment was regularly postponed until the first session of the Congress succeeding the enumeration. After the eleventh census, however, a change was made and the apportionment bills for the eleventh and twelfth censuses were brought in and passed in each case during the short session of the expiring Congress immediately following the enumeration. Technically, it is immaterial which plan is adhered to, for the new arrangements do not in any case go into effect until the next congressional election. Practically, however, the one plan or the other may make a world of difference in the status and prospective fortunes of parties, of office-holders, and of office-seekers.

WHY THE TIME ELEMENT IS IMPORTANT

To illustrate: During the past decade the growth of the population of New York State has been such that, if the present ratio of one representative to 194,182 people shall be maintained, the commonwealth will be entitled two years hence to eight new members

of Congress. Now New York is one of those States which has lately come into possession of a Democratic Legislature. After Congress determines the number of representatives to which a State is entitled, the Legislature of that State attends to the districting of the commonwealth for congressional purposes. If, therefore, Congress shall, during the present session, effect a reapportionment in accordance with the census of 1910, it will become the fortune of the New York Democrats to exercise almost immediately the privilege of redistricting the State—presumably after their own interests, as the Republicans were in a position to do ten years ago.

Considering that there are several other States—notably Maine, Ohio, and Indiana—in which a similar situation obtains, it is easy enough to understand why there should have been in recent weeks an insistent demand on the part of Republicans most concerned that the reapportionment be this time left over to be made by the Congress which shall come into being next December. The idea is that within a year or two the Republicans may chance to regain the upper hand in some States that have for the present fallen out of their control. A Democratic gerrymander of simply the four States of Maine, New York, Ohio, and Indiana might easily be made to yield ten or a dozen seats, as compared with the present Republican gerrymander of these same States.

On the whole, however, the policy of delay is hardly likely to prevail, even though there would be abundant precedent for it. On the basis of statistics especially prepared for the purpose by Director Durand and his assistants, the House Committee on the Census, under the chairmanship of Mr. Crumpacker, has already drafted a reapportionment bill for the consideration of Congress during the current session, and some sort of measure on the subject may be expected to be passed before the dissolution in March. The Democrats will look on complacently while the expiring Republican majority pushes the project with such grace as it can muster.

	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600	650	700
CANADIAN HOUSE OF COMMONS											214
JAPANESE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES											369
AMERICAN HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES											391
GERMAN REICHSTAG											396
SPANISH CONGRESS											406
RUSSIAN DUMA											442
ITALIAN CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES											508
AUSTRIAN HOUSE OF COMMONS											516
FRENCH CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES											594
BRITISH HOUSE OF COMMONS											670

SOME OF THE WORLD'S GREATEST PARLIAMENTARY BODIES

(Figures at the right indicate membership; each square, from left to right, represents fifty members, as indicated by figures at the top)

HOW LARGE SHOULD THE HOUSE BE?

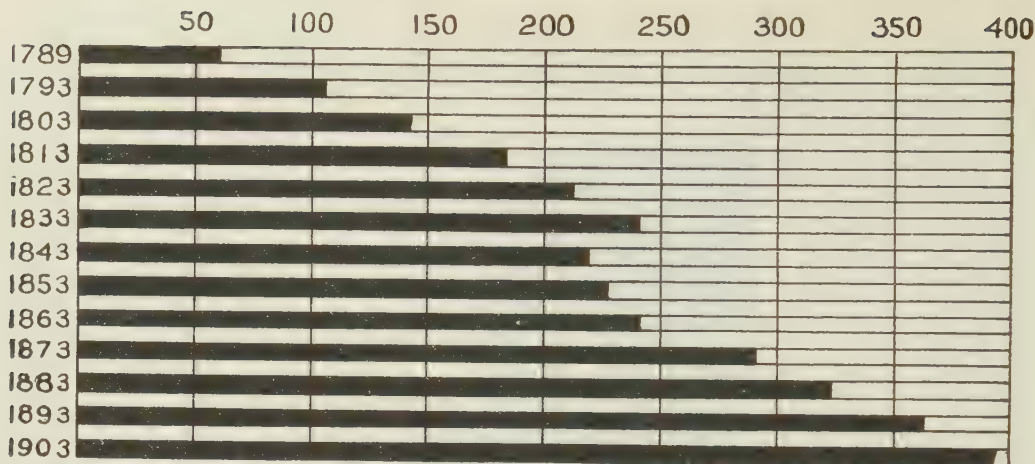
Mere political advantage or disadvantage is, of course, a transitory phase. The question of largest moment is rather that of the size of the House after its forthcoming reconstitution. At what point numerically a deliberative assembly ceases to be a deliberative assembly and becomes a mob nobody has ever satisfactorily determined, though obviously there must somewhere be a dividing line. The British House of Commons has 670 members. It works smoothly enough, though it is but fair to say that the actual attendance, save on rare occasions, is very much smaller. The French Chamber of Deputies contains 594 members. As is well known, it is a somewhat tempestuous body. The German Reichstag numbers 396; the Spanish Chamber, 406; the Russian Duma, 442; the Italian Chamber of Deputies, 508; and the Austrian Chamber, 516. Our House of Representatives, with its 391 members, is therefore by no means the largest of the world's parliamentary assemblies. But we are a fast-growing people, and our popular legislative chamber, if it is to be augmented to keep pace with its ever-broadening constit-

uency, must eventually attain the magnitude of even the British Commons. Whether such a thing is desirable is a very grave question.

Since the arbitrary and provisional apportionment which the framers put into the text of the Constitution itself, there have been, to 1910, twelve reapportionments—one consequent upon each of the twelve censuses. All but one effected a more or less substantial increase in the membership of the House. Starting with 65, the number rose in 1793 to 105; in 1803, to 141; in 1813, to 181; in 1823, to 213; and in 1833, to 240. In 1843, at the instance of the Senate, it was set back to 223; but at each of the next two censuses it was increased by ten, and in 1873 it was brought up to 293. Thereafter, within the short space of thirty years, it rose to the present figure, 391. At this rate, two or three more generations will carry the number past that in the French popular chamber and within hailing distance of that in the British House of Commons.

THE CHANGING RATIO OF REPRESENTATION

The rapid enlargement of the House has taken place in spite of successive increases



THE MEMBERSHIP OF THE HOUSE AS INCREASED AT SUCCESSIVE REAPPORTIONMENTS

(Figures at the top designate the number of members)

of the number of people represented by the individual member. Between the first and third censuses a member represented supposedly 33,000 people. If that ratio had been maintained, the lower house at Washington would to-day contain about 2300 members, and after 1913, more than 2800! A member to-day, however, represents 194,182 inhabitants—nearly six times as many as a hundred years ago. As Congress now approaches the problem once more, the vital question is that of the ratio to be adopted for the coming ten years. To maintain the present ratio means to increase the membership of the House to upward of 470; to raise it to something like 215,000 means a membership of 425; only by stretching it to 233,000 can a membership of the present figure be preserved. No such sweeping increase has ever been made, nor is it now probable.

STATES THAT MAY LOSE SEATS

And just here arises the principal difficulty. The enormous growth of population which the census of 1910 records has been spread very unevenly over the country. In Iowa there has been no growth at all. In other States, as Missouri, Kentucky, and Maine, the growth has been very slight. In such States, obviously, to raise the representation ratio would mean to reduce the number of representatives to which the State is entitled. This sort of thing has happened again and again, but naturally no State enjoys it. Thus, Virginia, which after the census of 1790 was given 19 seats and in the next decade 23, was compelled by reason of her comparative slow-

ness of growth to see them stripped from her until in the seventies she had but 9 and to-day has but 10. Maryland has been reduced from 8 to 6; New Hampshire, from 4 to 2; Connecticut, from 7 to 5; Maine, from 8 (in 1830) to 4. Massachusetts has barely preserved the same number (14) with which she started in 1790. There have been only three censuses—the last one in 1890—which did not entail the loss of seats by one or more States.

Unless by the forthcoming reapportionment the House shall be increased to at least 425, there must be losses of congressional seats, and likewise of votes in the Electoral College, by a large number of States. From commonwealths most likely to suffer—Maine, New Hampshire, Indiana, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, Kentucky, and States farther south—has arisen an insistent demand for such an increase of the House as will make it possible to provide adequate representation for the growing populations of States like New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Texas, without at the same time withdrawing seats from the States that are growing less rapidly.

The issue is as old as the nation. In earlier times there were struggles over it which were prolonged sometimes through two sessions, or even over from one Congress to another. Twenty years ago a contest of the sort was averted by the understanding which prevailed from the first that no State was to be deprived of any portion of its existing quota. But ten years ago there was a great fight, with the result, as has almost invariably happened, that the large-house party triumphed. The Burleigh bill, providing for 386 seats, was

carried in opposition to the Hopkins bill, reported by the majority of the House Committee, providing for the continuance of the existing number, 357.

FRACTIONAL CONSTITUENCIES

The task of reapportionment is further complicated by the recurrence of fractional constituencies. Until 1840 the prevailing method was to fix upon the number of people to be represented by each member, as 33,000 in 1793 and again in 1803, and by dividing it into the total number of inhabitants of a State obtain a quotient which would be the number of representatives to which that State should be entitled. No regard was paid to fractions remaining, though sometimes they fell but little short of the number corresponding to a representative.

In 1832 the injustice of this system was exposed by Daniel Webster, then a member of the Census Committee of the Senate, and at the reapportionment of 1843 an additional member was allowed in every instance where, after the regular constituencies had been provided for, there remained a "major fraction," *i. e.*, more than half enough people to be regularly entitled to a representative. This has been uniformly the practice since 1843, with the further modification that once or twice, in order to make up the quota of members previously determined upon, representation has been accorded to a few of the largest minor fractions. Of course, even in such a case, there will still be in various States minor groups of people over and above the technical constituencies provided for. These people are not, however, as is sometimes loosely said, unrepresented. They simply comprise a population excess within the established congressional districts. No fewer than twenty-three members of Congress to-day represent fractional constituencies.

GROWTH OF THE COMMITTEE SYSTEM

The arguments which may be brought forward against a further increase of the membership of the House are legion. Already, in a considerable degree, the House, by reason of its size, has lost the deliberative character which the framers of our Constitution manifestly intended it to possess. The fate of almost every measure is now determined in committee, and it has become a familiar proceeding for the House to vote an enormous

appropriation measure, concerning whose real merits most members are utterly in the dark, within the record-breaking space of ten or fifteen minutes. To provide places for so many members, the committees themselves have grown unwieldy, and some have been created which are so unnecessary that they rarely or never even hold a meeting.

THE SEATING PROBLEM

The purely physical difficulties are also pronounced. Even now it is all but impossible for the member who is so unfortunate as to draw a seat at the rear or on the outer edge of the chamber to hear what is going on. In 1858, when the membership was less than two thirds of what it now is, an experiment was tried in the seating of the members on plush benches after the style of the British House of Commons; but the result was adjudged extremely unsatisfactory, and after a single short session there was a return to the more businesslike but more space-consuming American plan. What to do with twenty-five or thirty newcomers in 1913 will, if the membership shall be increased by so much, offer no inconsiderable puzzle.

And if twenty-five or thirty in 1913, how many more in 1923, and at decennial intervals thereafter? For it will be no easier to call a halt to-morrow than it is to-day. Almost precisely sixty years ago Congress very definitely put itself on record in a resolution to the effect that the House of Representatives had attained a size beyond which it ought never to be increased. At that time there were but 233 members. It was further stipulated that thereafter reapportionments should be worked out, not by Congress itself, but by the Secretary of the Interior. In 1862, however, when that official undertook to perform the task committed to him, Congress stepped in and took it out of his hands, threw out the arrangements he had proposed, and ended by adding eight seats for which he had not provided. Ten years later forty-nine seats were added at a single stroke, and there never has been a reapportionment since when there has been enough consideration for the real interests of the House, and of the country, to withstand the powerfully directed pressure for numbers. It is to be hoped that the Congress now expiring may be made to realize, even at the last moment, the opportunity for the exercise of real statesmanship which lies at just this point.

THE POTASH INDUSTRY AND THE AMERICAN FARMER

BY ARTHUR B. REEVE

WHEN the Secretary of Agriculture published his annual figures of the value of our farm products—nearly nine billions of dollars last year—every American must have felt a sensation of commendable pride. For at no time in the world's history has any other country equaled this agricultural record.

But how much longer will it last? Any farmer knows that we are taking far more from our soil than we are putting back into it, and that cannot go on forever. The conservationists have been telling us for years that we are about at the end of our virgin lands, that the problem of soil exhaustion follows hard on the heels of such record production.

In other words, the future of Uncle Sam's farms is bound up in the question of fertilizers—in putting back into the soil at least approximately what we are so lavishly taking out of it. Roughly speaking, fertilizers are composed of phosphoric acid, nitrate of soda, and some form of potash salts. Florida, South Carolina and Tennessee furnish us with immense rock phosphate deposits. Chile has enormous nitrate beds, and there are other ways besides importing nitrates from Chile to put nitrogen back into the soil. About phosphates and nitrates much has been written and many estimates given of how many more generations they will last. But to-day the bulletins of the Agricultural Department, the reports of the State Experiment Stations, and the investigations of the agricultural colleges tell the farmer why his crops fail. They tell him that the reason why his fertilizers do not stop the failure is because he does not realize the value of potash added to the nitrates and phosphoric acid. What with all this education the potash question must yearly take on increased importance. For if there comes, as certainly there is coming, a time of diminishing yields from our land, that means even greater increases in the cost of living.

Somewhere in the dim past, when Europe was a tropical country, a little arm of the sea was separated off into a huge natural evaporation pan. Here for thirteen thousand years,

as the geologists tell us, the blazing sun beat down on the great salt lake which was later, in our own time, to be the Stassfurt potash region in Saxony. It extends from the Harz Mountains to the Elbe and from Magdeburg to Bernburg. A channel from the ocean ran into this lake and as the waters were evaporated new salt waters were supplied. Thus these deposits of salts are over 5000 feet (nearly a mile) deep. They are practically inexhaustible.

THE WONDERFUL DEPOSITS IN SAXONY

Nowhere else in the world are there potash deposits even remotely comparable to those at Stassfurt. For, after the thousands of years of evaporation, Nature came along and laid a solid deposit of impervious clay over the precious salts. Otherwise the rain and water soaking through the earth would have dissolved and carried away these deposits; as deposits in other parts of the world have undoubtedly been carried away.

Thus it comes about that, aided by Nature, the little group of mine owners in the Stassfurt region have a grip on the potash trade of the world, and hence on the farmer who is the greatest of all consumers of potash, a grip such as few of the strongest monopolies in any other necessary have ever possessed.

Early in the nineteenth century this region was noted for its salt works (table salt). But the process was the old, unscientific one of evaporating the water off salt in solution. When rock salt was discovered in other parts of the world, the Stassfurt salt industry languished. In 1839 the government made borings to determine whether there were deposits of workable rock salt. Between 1852 and 1857 a shaft over one thousand feet deep was sunk, but nothing but potash and magnesia salts were found. At that time they were considered practically worthless and were called "refuse salts."

Then came Justus von Liebig and his researches in organic chemistry, and in 1860 he discovered that potash salts were necessary to plant life. As the only other way to get potash was by the old system of burning

wood and draining the potash off from the ashes, this discovery at once made the Stassfurt deposits of inestimable value. The next year the first factories for refining potash salts were established. Farmers tried potash in the soil with success and at once an enormous demand was created. Miners, laborers, chemists, engineers, superintendents, clerks, flocked to the region and the old abandoned salt works of Stassfurt became one of the great sources of German wealth. To-day these potash deposits spell the agricultural fertility of the world, for while there is an electrolytic method of producing potash it is not commercially practicable. Nothing, so far, can compete with the potassium chloride, muriate, sulphate and other salts produced by the great Stassfurt kali industry.

THE MINING SYNDICATE

In this Stassfurt region about 700,000 tons of actual potash are produced in the course of a year, and of this amount the United States consumes about one-fifth. This production has for twenty years been under absolute control, both in amount and price, by a syndicate in which the imperial government and several of the German states participate as owners of potash mines. Of recent years both the amount of potash produced has increased and the price advanced. A good mine, it has been demonstrated, can make from 300 to 500 per cent. profit over and above mining costs, general expenses, and depreciation. Thus there is profit in potash.

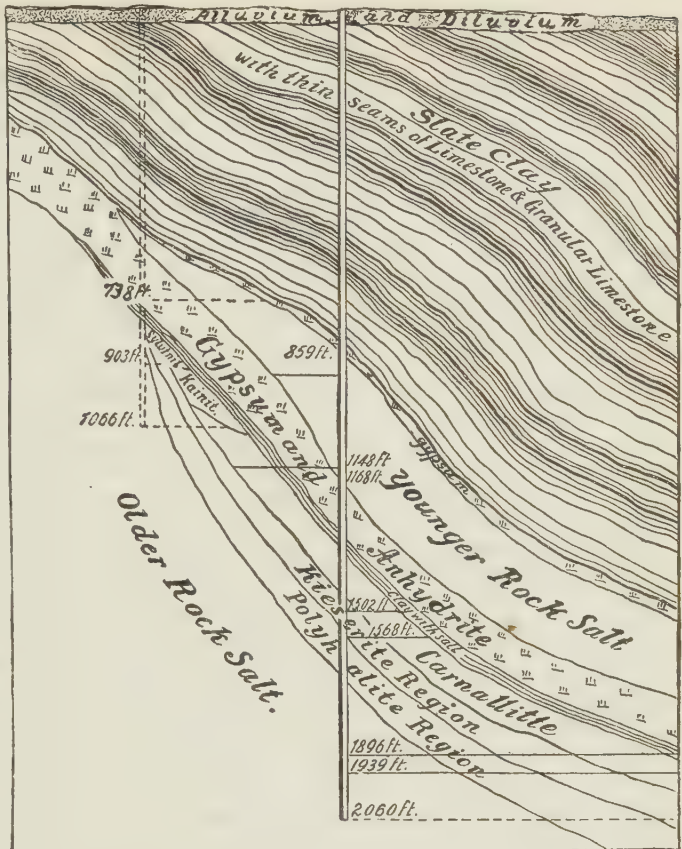
The great potash syndicate is composed of sixty-odd German potash producers who today dominate Germany, America, in fact the whole agricultural world. In its sixty-odd potash or kali works are 20,000 or more laborers in the mines, and about 1000 clerks and other executive officers; it controls mines, factories, reduction plants, railroads, locomotives, and cars.

On June 30, 1909, the German Kalisyndikat was dissolved. Five years had been the usual term for which the potash mine owners

made their agreements and on that date their agreement ended. As the number of mines had been increasing and the amount of production likewise, Americans had high hopes of securing potash at lower prices.

THE PROMISE OF LOWER PRICES

Thus, when the agreement was not renewed, Hermann Schmidtman, of Lofer, Austria, who had been a pioneer in the potash fields and a large producer through the Aschersleben and Sollstedt mines which he had developed, made contracts with two of the important American consumers for seven years to supply potash at a price about 30 per cent. less than the old syndicate prices. The third of the important American consumers also had a similar contract with another independent mine. Moreover, three years before, in 1906, the independent American fertilizer companies had made contracts for ten years with Schmidtman by which potash was to be sold to them at the lowest price paid by any American consumer. Therefore



SECTION OF POTASH SALT MINE SHAFT "LUDWIG II"

when the old syndicate started to break up, the American consumers of potash, whether "trusts" or "independents," were all placed on the same favorable basis, three independent potash mines offering to supply the entire American trade at greatly reduced rates.

The other sixty mines were not willing to sit still and see the control of the whole American market pass to the three mines which were willing to furnish potash below the old syndicate prices. Therefore the syndicate was reorganized.

THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT'S INTERVENTION

Negotiations continued between the mine-owners, the Schmidtmanns, and the Americans until after the American Tariff law was passed and signed in 1909. The real fighting began in September of that year, and the question was still open in the latter part of the year when the United States was negotiating with various countries regarding the application of the maximum and minimum schedules of our new tariff. Germany, of course, wanted the minimum, or "most-favored nation" schedule; and America, of course, wanted reasonably priced potash.

Assurances were conveyed to our Government that nothing would be done that would impair the validity of existing contracts, and with these assurances Germany was placed on the minimum tariff schedules of 1909.

TAXING THE AMERICAN CONSUMER

The low-priced American contracts contained a clause which provided that "any export or import duties or other governmental charges which may hereafter become effective during the life of the contract shall also be paid by the buyer"—that is, the American potash purchaser. When it became evident, then, that Germany contemplated legislation, aimed along this line, Mr. Schmidtman used every effort to have it made as little burdensome as possible, but the syndicate proved too strong for him. Representations by our ambassador to Germany were also unavailing. Several American representatives visited Berlin but could arrange no satisfactory compromise.

Finally, on May 10, 1910, the Reichstag

passed a law allowing a syndicate committee to fix arbitrarily the amount of potash all mines should produce and sell free of tax. Previous contracts had nothing to do with it. Moreover, about half even of this fixed amount must be sold in Germany. To cap the climax, on any excess over the limited production a tax was levied amounting to about 100 per cent. of the price of which the makers of the low-priced contracts had agreed to sell potash to the Americans. This tax amounts to more than the entire cost of production at the mines. Worse than that, it makes the price of potash on delivery in the United States greater even than it was before the old syndicate broke up in July, 1909. Not only was America so deprived of reasonably priced potash but the price was thus boosted higher than ever before. However, after vigorous representations the Bundesrath was authorized to reduce the tax slightly, and make the conditions a little less onerous.

As for the promise given not to impair the low-price contracts, while it is true that nothing has been done which legally violates them, the heavy tax imposed would force the buyers to pay a price much higher than that at which the syndicate is now selling to others who hold no contracts. Under such circumstances the American buyers would be unable to compete and would be destroyed if compelled to comply with the contract conditions.

The low-priced American contracts were made ten months before this new tax law was passed. The tonnage necessary to fulfil these contracts is equal to the total capacity of the three non-syndicate mines which made the contracts. Theoretically half their quota could be sold free to us. But that would be only half enough to live up to their contracts. If the other half is also sold to America, instead of being sold in Germany, the first half—the free quota—is forfeited. Therefore Americans will not receive even half the value of their contracts.

However, those who are in closest touch with the situation do not strongly advocate extreme measures. They believe that nothing more is necessary than a strong stand by the administration for the protection of the interests of the American consumer of potash—the farmer.



VOTING OUT THE LIQUOR TRAFFIC

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART

(District Superintendent of the New York Anti-Saloon League)

THE case of the people against the saloon is being tried in the court of public opinion in this country and the verdict of the ballot-box seems to be "guilty." Forty-five millions of the people of the land, one-half of the inhabitants, are living in territory in which the liquor traffic has been forbidden by law. Twenty-five of the thirty millions of the people living in the Southern States have already abolished the saloon by local option or by State prohibitory law. The liquor dealers supposed that the political landslide in November last would be to their advantage and now assert that it was. The temperance people, however, deny this and maintain that, while there have been some temporary checks to the movement in certain quarters owing to the excessive zeal of radical friends, there have been more victories than defeats, and predict that the ballot will continue the steady work of demolishing the saloon.

MR. BRYAN AND COUNTY OPTION

There never was a cleaner-cut issue than that between the liquor and the temperance forces in the election in Nebraska last November. William Jennings Bryan had reason to believe that the brewers had played an important part in defeating him in his last Presidential campaign. He undertook to have a county local option plank put in his State Democratic platform. Mr. Bryan made a most eloquent plea before the seven thousand people who had gathered in the tent for the convention, but they voted down his local option proposition by a tremendous majority, and with jeers and contempt, and deposed him from party leadership in his State. He told the Democrats at that convention that he had been notified of the fact that the Republican State convention in session in another city had adopted a county local option resolution. The Democratic convention then nominated for Governor Mayor Dahlman, who came out openly against advanced temperance legislation. Mr. Bryan, by his pen through the *Commoner* and his tongue from the stump, opposed Dahlman. During the last ten days of the

convention, he made election addresses at Lincoln, Omaha, and other strategic points, hiring the halls himself and paying all of the expenses, as the Democratic committee refused to "date" him. This is a sample of his terrific arraignment of the liquor interests in one of his campaign speeches:

I am not willing to turn the Democratic party over to the brewers and make it the open and avowed champion of the liquor interests. . . . The liquor business is on the defensive; its representatives are, for the most part, lawless themselves and in league with lawlessness. They are in partnership with the gambling hell and the brothel. They are the most corrupt and corrupting influence in politics, and I shall not, by voice or vote, aid them in establishing a reign of terror in this State. . . . I shall contribute whatever assistance I can to the effort which will be made to put an end to the spree upon which our party seems to have embarked. I am not willing that the party shall die of delirium tremens.

Mr. Bryan worked for the rest of the ticket. The result of the election was that Mr. Dahlman was defeated by Mr. Aldrich, a pronounced county local optionist. A Democratic legislature was elected, but it is understood that enough local option Democrats and Republicans were chosen to insure the passage of the bill at the next session. Mr. Bryan has gone back to the leadership of his party in the State and will have no little influence with the next Congress and the liquor people will have to reckon with him hereafter as one of their most powerful and relentless foes.

OKLAHOMA A PROHIBITION STATE

The most signal defeat which the liquor men suffered was the vote which kept Oklahoma in the prohibition column. That State adopted a prohibition plank in its constitution when it came into the Union. The temperance people were much surprised at the demand which the saloon men made a few months before the election, that the question should be voted upon again. The temperance people went into the courts to prevent such a contest, and the Supreme Court declared that it could not have any jurisdiction

over the constitutional question until an election should have been held. It is understood that the liquor men put pretty nearly a million dollars into the contest, as the taking of that State from the prohibition column would have likely set the temperance reform movement back several years. The Anti-Saloon League of the new State called loudly to the churches, temperance people and citizens generally for active coöperation in the whirlwind campaign, and there was such a moral uprising as has been scarcely seen in any other State. Governor Haskell and Senator Owen and other public men were active upon the side of the church in the contest. Bishop Quayle read out the appointments of his Methodist conference in the State and told his men not to go to their new appointments, as is the universal custom, the first Sunday of the new conference year, but to go back to their old homes, roll up their sleeves and beat down the greatest foe of the church. They and others like them went with an enthusiasm that was contagious and the victory was won. The majority for prohibition was 24,000 on the flat "yes" and "no" vote, and 42,000 on a constitutional majority. Against the prohibitory proposition, the brewers proposed a model license law which would have made Oklahoma one of the wettest States of the Union.

Governor Stubbs has been reëlected in Kansas. He has rigidly enforced the prohibitory laws of the State and claims that under his administration all the saloons are closed, most of the "blind tigers" eliminated and only some few "boot-leggers" left. The whiskey people hate Governor Stubbs perhaps more than any man in the nation because he is such an aggressive enemy.

PROHIBITION DEFEATED IN MISSOURI AND OREGON

The liquor forces were successful in the vote in Missouri, against State-wide prohibition. By the Initiative and Referendum, a small minority in that State can call an election. About forty people in Sedalia started a movement and enough names were added to bring on a contest for State-wide prohibition. It was only the extremists that favored this action. Conservative temperance people protested against it, and foretold the overwhelming defeat which such a proposition would suffer before public sentiment was ready for it. The measure was defeated by 200,000 majority. The vote in the State of Missouri did not make any change in the temperance situa-

tion. There are still fifty-nine counties wholly dry and a million of the people living in no-license territory.

The fight for constitutional prohibition in Oregon was lost. The State went wet by a small majority in the prohibition fight, losing six dry counties. Fifteen out of the thirty-three counties, however, are still dry. California, on the other hand, for the first time in its history has passed a local option law.

VICTORIES AND REVERSES IN THE SOUTH

Although the Governor of Texas is against State prohibition, he was elected upon a platform declaring for it, and it is understood that two-thirds of both branches of the Legislature elected are in favor of that measure. The Governor says if it should be passed he will sign the bill.

There has been somewhat of a reaction in Alabama. The constitutional prohibitory proposition was defeated by popular vote last winter. The State did not go back to license, however, and retained its statutory prohibitory law. Ex-Governor Comer's anti-incorporation administration made possible the uniting of the railroad men in favor of Emmet O'Neal for Governor. He defeated Mallory, who stood for State-wide prohibition.

Birmingham has elected a reform mayor. There is a possibility of the repeal of the prohibitory law in Alabama, but no certainty of it.

The "wets" were successful in the fight against prohibition in Florida, by a majority of a little less than 5000. This was somewhat of a surprise to the temperance people and country at large, but it is charged that the liquor men paid the poll tax of 30,000 negroes and voted them in favor of the saloon. It is said that seven colored counties made the 4700 majority against prohibition. Friends of the colored people fear that their action in making the alliance with the saloons at the polls will result in the addition of a "grandfather's clause" to the laws of the State. The general vote, however, did not affect the individual localities. Thirty-five of the forty-seven counties are still dry and about four-fifths of the population live in territory from which the saloon has been eliminated by the vote of the people. There are only about 350 saloons left in the entire State.

The election of Hoke Smith as Governor of Georgia was a pronounced temperance victory. Governor Smith removed Brown when he was railroad commissioner. Then the whiskey people took the side of Brown and

with the aid of the corporations which Smith had opposed, he was elected governor. His administration gave a loose enforcement of the prohibitory laws, especially in Atlanta. The liquor forces greatly rejoiced over Smith's defeat, as he had stood for and signed the State prohibitory bill. At the last election, the temperance people took great pleasure in helping to put Hoke Smith back into power as the Governor of the State. To the deep despair of the saloon forces of the State the prohibitory law will not be repealed at the next session of the Legislature, and if any unfriendly action should be attempted, Governor Smith would put his veto upon it.

A tragic issue of the last campaign was the fight between the saloon and its enemies in the State of Tennessee. Senator Carmack was murdered by the Coopers in a quarrel which they picked with him over the fight against the saloons of the State. Governor Patterson had championed the Coopers. The Republicans and Independent Democrats had elected a nonpartisan judiciary. Patterson undertook to renominate himself, but the outburst of hostility to him drove him from his purpose, and in the contest the Republicans and Independent Democrats, standing for State-wide prohibition and a rigid enforcement of the law, swept the State, electing Ben Hooper over Senator Taylor for Governor, and placing the State, for the third time only in its history, in the Republican column.

THE FIGHT IN THE MIDDLE WEST

Three years ago the Legislature in Illinois gave township, city, and village local option. Under these provisions three-fourths of the territory of the State is now dry. By annexation of suburban towns and by city ordinance and by local option one-half of the area of the city of Chicago is to-day dry. The fight is on in Illinois for local option by counties as units, with a very good prospect of success. It is expected that there will be temperance Democrats and Republicans enough in the Legislature to pass it.

One of the most remarkable incidents in the moral contest in Chicago was the election of the Rev. G. Frank Smith in the nineteenth Senatorial district, which is the home of the united societies of a personal liberty league, and contains six hundred saloons and one of the largest breweries in Chicago. The manager of the brewery conducted the campaign against Smith. There were two Republican candidates against him and Smith ran on an

independent ticket, as the acknowledged champion of the church and temperance people. He was elected by 2000 majority.

In Indiana the local option question got mixed up in the election contest. It is asserted that several candidates for the Legislature who were pledged to Senator Beveridge were defeated solely by the county option issue. The friends of temperance hope that the county local option law will not be repealed. Seventy of the 92 counties of the State are now dry, and a repeal of the law might prove a dangerous Democratic experiment.

The question of the repeal of county option in Ohio was not decided by the Democratic victory in that State. Early in the summer the moral sense of the nation had been shocked by the wanton killing of young Etherington, one of the Anti-Saloon detectives, at Newark, a city of 25,000 inhabitants, in Licking County, which had been voted "dry" by 700 majority. This tragedy brought about the "cleaning up" of Newark, where the law is no longer openly defied, as formerly. There is undoubtedly some sentiment in favor of repealing the county option law, but whether the Legislature will venture to take such action remains to be seen. The Anti-Saloon forces are confident of preventing repeal.

IN RURAL NEW YORK

Another surprise for both the liquor and the temperance people is the rapidity with which the saloon is being eliminated from the rural districts of New York State. The Raines Law of 1896 provided local option by towns as a unit, allowing an election in towns every two years on four forms of license, saloon, liquor store, drug store, and hotel. The wet and dry map of New York shows the result of the elections up to January 1, 1911. Full license towns, less than 300; partial license about 250; no license of any kind, 400. The elections of 1909 alone cause a net increase of 80 no-license towns. It took eleven years before to win a net increase of 49 no-license towns, of the average of about four a year, so that in one year there was twice as much progress made in driving out the saloon as in all of the eleven years before. One-fourth of the population of the State lives in the rural districts, where the right of local option is granted, but three-fourths live in the 49 cities of the State, where local option is forbidden. The Anti-Saloon League has for several years undertaken to secure local option for cities. It will present a bill before

the present Legislature asking the privilege of local option for cities as a whole. The fate of excise and other reform legislation will depend somewhat upon whether Governor Dix shall ally his administration with the up-State Democracy or with Tammany Hall.

A marked advance in temperance legislation was made at the last session of the Legislature, when the amendment to the Raines Law increased the limit for consents from 200 to 300 feet and placed the ratio of one saloon to 750 of the population, instead of one to 350, which is the custom throughout the State. The law does not apply to old licenses, but to new ones, and in the course of time, without any other legislation, one-half the saloons in New York State and City will be abolished.

RESUBMISSION IN MAINE

The liquor interests maintain that Maine was taken out of the Republican and placed in the Democratic column because the Republican platform was in favor of the maintenance and enforcement of the State prohibitory law. The temperance people see in the change of that State's vote only the beginning of the national political landslide which was generally expected. It is said that the liquor question entered very little into the discussions of the campaign and that the Democratic and Republican electors made very little mention of it in their speeches. After the election, however, the whiskey men claimed that it was their victory. The question of resubmission will be up before the Legislature and seems likely to be carried, but there is a strong possibility that if the question should be resubmitted the people, Democrats and Republicans, would unite in maintaining the State prohibitory law.

INTERNAL REVENUE RETURNS

The liquor interests are making a good deal of the report of the United States Internal Revenue Bureau indicating an increase in the manufacture and consumption of both distilled and spirituous liquors for 1910 over that of 1909, and are trying to make the public believe that the restrictive excise legislation and the prohibition enactments were responsible for the increase. Nothing could be farther from the truth. The increase has been in the wet States and especially those containing the very large cities. With one or two exceptions there is not a dry State or county in the United States where the authorized statistics do not show a decrease in the

manufacture and use of intoxicating liquors during the year 1910 over that of 1909. The increase in the manufacture of distilled liquors in New York State alone in 1910 is three times as large as the whole amount of such liquors consumed by all the prohibition States of the country in the year 1910. And the increase of the consumption of beer in New York State alone in 1910 was an amount equal to two-thirds of all the beer consumed by all the prohibition States in 1910.

A good deal of the rum that was sold in the prohibited territory during the year was carried there under the provisions of the Interstate Commerce Law, where the federal Government has permitted dealers to ship liquors from wet into dry territory. There is an earnest effort upon the part of the Anti-Saloon League and other temperance organizations to secure the passage of the Miller-Curtis bill at the present session of Congress, which will enable the States to enforce their own statutes against the liquor traffic in their own territory.

ATTITUDE OF THE CHURCHES

The Anti-Saloon League began seventeen years ago to teach the church how to use the ballot effectively against the saloon. There are 750 American pulpits open to official representatives of this League every Sunday in the year, and many of the governing councils of the various denominations have indorsed its principles, have commended its actions and have coöperated with it in its campaigns. More and more the Catholic Church is taking a positive stand against the saloon and thousands of Catholic as well as Protestant ballots are used against the traffic. Archbishop Ireland was one of the founders of the National Anti-Saloon League and many of the archbishops, bishops, priests and lay members of the Roman Catholic Church are most enthusiastic and potential warriors against the liquor traffic. Many citizens who are not members of the church and who are not even total abstainers themselves admit the evil of the American saloon and fight with the great army of moral reformers for its abolition.

This liquor war will not be over in a year or in a decade, nor possibly in a generation, but the American saloon is so un-American, has so little to commend itself to public favor, so much of vice and crime to provoke opposition, that it will have to go, for the advance in individual integrity and civic virtue will leave no place for it in an enlightened Christian civilization.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

THE DEARTH AND DECADENCE OF SHORT STORIES

IT may perhaps be news to many of the readers of the REVIEW to learn that there is a scarcity of short stories. To the average magazine subscriber, who is not inclined to be hypercritical, the usual proportion of pages seems to be devoted to this kind of writing; the stories themselves do not exhibit (to him) any striking evidence of deterioration; yet we are assured that there exists to-day "a veritable short-story famine," and, moreover, that the popular taste for short stories is changing for the worse. Mr. George Jean Nathan, writing in the *Bookman*, states that a few weeks ago the editor of one of the best known of the metropolitan magazines said to him:

I have been engaged in magazine work for the last twelve years and during this period have frequently been put to it to get good short stories for my publication; but never has the effort been more difficult, yes, seemingly more impossible, than at present. And to-day, I do not even put the entire emphasis on the adjective "good." I tell you frankly I am having great difficulty in getting short stories that may be characterized "fair" or even printable. Where short stories were sent in to me and submitted personally at the rate of at least fifty a week a year or two ago, to-day less than one-fifth of that number come to my desk. This is actually a short-story famine year.

Several reasons for the shortage are advanced. Many short-story writers are now devoting themselves to the preparation of plays. Others find that the day of the character-study is over, and that the "murder-mystery-detective" species of story is more remunerative. Still others are turning their attention to the writing of serials. There is another important contributing factor to the present situation. We read:

Almost without exception, the standard magazines to-day insist on the so-called "uplift" stories. They do not care to consider stories of any other type, seemingly not realizing that if short-story writers are limited to the "uplift" style, the writing of short stories must become to a large degree mechanical, of a single monotonous strain, forced in style, and frequently abortive. To the writer who has other ambitions than a bank check, the arbitrary "uplift" dictum has proved odious and discouraging, and the result has been that writers of this class have ceased to apply themselves entirely to short stories, and have turned to novel

writing as a means to express honestly the best that is in them.

Another magazine editor informed Mr. Nathan that since O. Henry's death it has been utterly impossible to secure for his publication a short story that was original in any way. He added:

The discouragement of the younger short-story writers and the comparatively greater remuneration to be gained from the crime brand of fiction, has left the field almost wholly to the present so-called staple short-story men like Gouverneur Morris, Samuel Hopkins Adams, Chester, London, and their much-in-demand "big name" brothers.

There is good reason, too, for believing that the demand and immediate payment for the slap-dash style of brief fiction is largely responsible for the dearth of short stories possessing literary qualities. Mr. Nathan cites the following instructions actually issued by the editor of one of the largest circulating short-fiction magazines in America:

Give your reader action and plenty of it. Don't stop to polish up your stuff. Write it for quick consumption, just as you would dictate it to a telegraph operator if you were a newspaper reporter covering a late night story and had to rush it into your office to catch the "bulldog" edition.

The editor in question claimed that he paid his contributors well, and that they could turn in three stories on these lines in the time it would take them to write one for the more literary magazines.

While the editors of the "blood-and-thunder" magazines, however, say that the public wants *their* kind of stories, the editors of the standard periodicals maintain that the public wants "uplift" fiction. Support is lent to the latter view by the experience of "the editor of a well-known magazine with a large circulation in the Middle West," who several months ago sent to each of his subscribers a request for an opinion of the short stories that recently had appeared and were appearing in that publication. Nine out of ten of the replies stated that the subscribers were "sick and tired" of the "crime slant" of the stories, and asked the editor to give them relief. Another editor with whom Mr. Nathan dis-

cussed the situation expressed the opinion that in regard to the "uplift" side of it many of his fellow magazine editors "seem to be blindly following a certain weekly leader that has gained a wide vogue through 'uplift' fiction. . . . Many editors seem to be

of the opinion that unless a story is uplifting it is degrading."

But, whichever view is correct, the salient fact remains, that "there is a short-story famine stalking through magazine land to-day."

THE CURRENTS OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC AND THE SARGASSO SEA

FOR a long time careful study has been made of the North Atlantic currents by means of floating bottles; yet the wrecks of ships abandoned at sea have, like buoys, far greater value than bottles: sinking deeper, they are less affected by winds and are far more under the influence of the currents. Besides, being more readily observed,—some of them have been sighted as many as forty-five consecutive times in their wanderings over the ocean,—and reported by passing ships, their courses are traceable with a degree of certainty quite unattainable in the case of bottles, about which our sole information is the starting point and the place of recovery.

A recent paper in *Cosmos* comments upon the records published in *Pilot Charts* and the study of these by L. Perruchot in *Géographie*. The records cover a period of twenty-three years and describe the courses followed by some 157 derelicts. The conclusions arrived at by A. Hauteux also tend to change somewhat our notions regarding the Gulf Stream and the other currents of the North Atlantic, which together form a closed circuit about the Sargasso Sea.

The Gulf Stream proper, after leaving the American coast at Cape Hatteras, does not take a course toward the northeast and Europe, as is often indicated on maps, but toward the east and the Azores. Near the latter islands it comes under the influence of northerly winds and turns toward the south and southeast, becoming the Canaries Current. The warm currents which reach the coasts of Ireland and Norway, are only offshoots, accidental dependencies of the Gulf Stream, caused by west and southwest winds, and not by the pressure of the waters coming from the Florida coast.

The courses followed by derelicts show something not indicated on any charts,—the existence of a current counter to the Gulf Stream, and to the right of it, between Bermuda and the Bahamas, moving south-

east with a speed varying from four to ten miles per day.

The movements of these currents are more complex than is usually assumed. The water does not hurry along steadily in one direction: gusts of wind and storms produce marked changes of direction, delays, reversals, which render the courses followed by derelicts very complicated. As a result, the velocity of the mass of the water must be far greater than that shown by floating bottles: in the middle of the North Atlantic the rate of drift of derelicts is four or five times as great as that possessed by small floating objects. The velocity of the current varies with the season: for the streams that sweep around the Sargasso Sea it is least in the winter and greatest in the summer. In the case of the Gulf Stream, near Cape Hatteras, it ranges all the way from ten to seventy miles per day. In mid-Atlantic it averages eighteen miles per day, with a minimum of ten and a maximum of thirty. Near the Azores the currents moving south and southeast vary in speed from nine to thirty miles per day. Finally, the North Equatorial Current averages ten miles daily in winter and twenty in summer. It is to be noted that the greatest velocities are produced when the southeast trade winds of the southern hemisphere come farthest north.

Turning now to the Sargasso Sea, we find another cherished legend of the ocean in danger of annihilation at the hands of scientific explorers. Sailors formerly maintained that in a vast region of the North Atlantic, there existed what was called the Sargasso Sea,—a mass of marine vegetation floating upon the surface, so dense and unyielding that sailing ships so unlucky as to become caught in it were held for an indefinite time, unable to escape. Maury, the American geographer, whose work was of such value in navigation, himself accepted these reports without proper evidence being put forward

in their behalf. The Norwegian Department of Fisheries has of late sent out upon the ship *Michael-Sars* a scientific expedition whose mission was to study the Sargasso Sea. According to the *Yacht*, the results are as follows:

Approximately, the position of the Sea coincides with that of the anticyclone which generally prevails over the North Atlantic. Around this centre of high pressure the wind and the surface currents revolve in a direction opposite to that of the hands of a watch. Naturally, vegetation, originally drawn from the bottom of the Gulf of Mexico in stormy weather, moves along the same route, now and then crossing the Gulf Stream and approaching the coast of the United States. This vegetation will most likely be met with south of the 40th parallel of the northern

hemisphere, between the meridian of the Azores and that of Charleston. Except in the neighborhood of the Gulf of Mexico, it rarely makes its way south of the 40th parallel.

The plants are brown seaweed of the family of the *fucaceæ*. They bear small vesicles or spherical floats which the old navigators likened to grapes, from whose name, *sarga*, was formed the noun Sargasso. The quantity of this weed to be seen is very great during the late summer, shortly after the season of frequent storms in the Gulf of Mexico. The plants float at the surface for five or six months before they decay and sink to the bottom. But the tales of floating masses capable of stopping the progress of ships are, according to the reports of the Norwegian expedition, quite fantastic.

RAILROAD FARES AT HOME AND ABROAD

IN making a comparison of railway travel at home and abroad three essential factors must be taken into account: comfort, cost, and speed. As to the first of these, the opinions of travelers differ widely. The majority of Americans traveling abroad do not take kindly to the small compartments of European railway coaches, while the European traveling in the United States longs for the cosy section—holding generally five or six persons—in which he is accustomed to journey on the railroads of his own country. But with regard to the other two factors opinions have nothing to do; for the questions of cost and speed are questions of fact. In a recent issue of the *Official Railway Guide* some illuminating figures are presented in this connection which cannot fail to be of interest to the thousands of our citizens who are wont to travel extensively on the other side of the herring-pond.

The accompanying two tables, showing the charges upon railways in Europe and the United States respectively, are, it is asserted, based on notes made by a traveler of experience in journeying through a territory in Europe of about 600 by 900 miles and a corresponding area in this country. The fares cited are those "charged for tickets on each continent, such as an ordinary passenger purchases in traveling from place to place. In no instance was a *train de luxe* included." Inasmuch as sleeping-car fares are considerably higher in Europe than in America, the cost of traveling is reckoned for day-time only.

ROUTES IN EUROPE

Route	Miles	Speed of Train. Miles per hour	First-Class Fare	Baggage Charge	Total Charge	Cents per mile
I	94	20.14	\$ 3.82	\$0.92	\$4.74	5.0
2	152	26.82	5.57	1.27	6.84	4.5
3	413	32.39	13.46	2.92	16.38	3.9
4	73	25.82	2.04	.81	2.85	3.9
5	165	31.43	5.92	1.62	7.54	4.6
6	497	24.85	18.09	5.66	3.75	4.7
7	168	34.76	5.47	1.32	6.79	4.0
8	264	37.71	11.02	2.69	13.71	5.2
9	38	28.50	1.59	.41	2.00	5.3
10	112	39.53	3.40	.66	4.06	3.6
11	718	49.69	6.17	1.14	7.31	4.1
Total .. 2,154	Av. 30.41	\$76.55	\$19.42	\$95.97	Av. 4.5	

ROUTES IN NORTH AMERICA

Route	Miles	Speed of Train. Miles per hour	First-Class Fare	Parlor Car Fare	Total Charge	Cents per mile
I	115	35.38	\$ 2.50	\$0.60	\$3.10	2.7
2	125	38.46	2.30	.50	2.80	2.2
3	396	36.00	11.90	2.00	13.90	3.5
4	85	42.50	1.70	.35	2.05	2.4
5	317	28.82	7.05	1.00	8.05	2.5
6	411	42.16	8.00	2.00	10.00	2.4
7	116	33.14	3.50	.50	4.00	3.4
8	284	40.57	5.50	1.00	6.50	2.3
9	40	40.00	1.00	.25	1.25	3.1
10	90	45.00	2.25	.50	2.75	3.0
11	232	41.18	4.75	1.00	5.75	2.5
Total .. 2,211	Av. 38.62	\$50.45	\$9.70	\$60.15	Av. 2.7	

The statistics given are for eleven different journeys in Europe, varying from 38 to 497 miles, and for a similar number in America, ranging from 40 to 411 miles. It will be seen that the net results are as follows:

Traveling first-class, 2,154 miles in Europe, at 30.4 miles per hour, with an average of 168 pounds of baggage, cost \$95.97, or 4.5 cents per mile.

Traveling first-class, 2,211 miles in North America, at 38.6 miles per hour, with an average of 168 pounds of baggage, including reserved seat in parlor car, would cost \$60.15, or about 2.7 cents per mile.

The cost of railway traveling in Europe is, therefore, over 55 per cent. higher than in North America, or, as the *Guide* puts it:

A passenger with a trunk in Europe would travel first-class 500 miles in 16 hours and 27 minutes at a cost of \$22.25; while a passenger in North America with the same baggage would travel in a parlor car 500 miles in 12 hours and 56 minutes at a cost of \$14.30.

In the matter of speed, too, the advantage is with the United States; for, although the highest rate—49.69 miles per hour on a jour-

ney of 178 miles—is conceded to Europe, the total average speed is 38.62 miles per hour in the United States as against 30.41 miles per hour in Europe.

Much of the travel in Europe is in second- and third-class compartments, the former corresponding to the ordinary first-class coach in America. Third-class accommodations have no parallel in this country, and need not be considered here. For second-class travel the following results are given by the *Guide*:

The cost of traveling 2,154 miles second class in Europe, at 30.4 miles per hour, with an average of 168 pounds of baggage is \$69.26, or 3.21 cents per mile.

The cost of traveling 2,211 miles first class in America, at 38.6 miles per hour, without parlor car seat, with an average of 168 pounds of baggage is \$51.86, or 2.41 cents per mile.

In view of the figures here presented, and remembering that in the important item of baggage the advantage is altogether on the side of the United States, it would seem, as the *Guide* justifiably remarks, that the American people have no just cause to complain of the cost of traveling by rail in their own country.

NEW YORK TO BREST—THE NEW TRANS-ATLANTIC ROUTE

A STRONG plea for using Brest as a Transatlantic port is made by the anonymous writer of an article in the *Revue de Paris*.

The majority of passengers who annually embark from Europe to New York, this writer reminds us, desire to make the sea voyage as short as possible, and they willingly pay a rather higher price for the quickest boats, not to mention the vanity of being able to boast of having traveled by "the fastest and finest ship in the world." The number of such passengers would alone suffice to explain the competition of the German and English Transatlantic companies for the record of speed. The other passengers, less pressed for time, demand more luxurious arrangements, similar to those of large hotels, and to meet this demand the White Star Line Company has built the *Olympic* with 45,000 tons register and a speed of only twenty-one knots, against the twenty-five knots of the *Mauritania*. These were intended to be the largest vessels in the world.

Meanwhile the Hamburg-American Line is building a huge vessel with 50,000 tons register and a speed of twenty-two knots, and

more recently the Cunard Company gave out a contract for the construction of a liner equal in size to the projected German vessel, but with a speed of twenty-three knots. It will be longer and narrower, but will have the same tonnage. So that no matter whether the *clientèle* consists of people who require the greatest possible speed or not, the navigation companies now find themselves obliged to construct larger and larger boats, which means that there must be more ports able to accommodate them.

From 1890 onward dredging operations at New York have been carried out at different times, and boats of the largest dimensions can now easily enter the harbor. But the Transatlantic ports of France do not satisfy the conditions of present-day requirements. While England and Germany have done a great deal, France has lagged far behind. The fleet of the French General Transatlantic Company cannot be compared for speed with its English and German rivals. Much might be done to insure quicker service between Cherbourg and New York. Moreover, Cherbourg is sixty miles nearer than Havre.

What France needs is a port able to accommodate the large boats of to-day and the larger boats of to-morrow, and a port to which access is easily possible at all times. Brest is the only port which satisfies those conditions. From Brest to New York it is also a shorter sea distance than from Fishguard to New York. The distances are given thus:

DISTANCE TO NEW YORK

Brest.....	2,950 miles.
Fishguard.....	2,980 "
Holyhead.....	3,030 "
Cherbourg.....	3,090 "

Southampton.....	3,110 miles.
Liverpool.....	3,130 "
Havre.....	3,150 "

All that is necessary to make Brest a fine Transatlantic port is some dredging operations, which would not be very costly. The Paris to Brest railway already exists, and only a very short extension would be required. At present the journey from Paris takes ten hours, but with fewer stops it could be reduced to eight. With such an accelerated railway journey not only passengers from France to New York, but those from Central Europe, would avail themselves of the service.

ADVENT OF THE AMERICAN NATIONAL OPERA

IN commenting on the fact that the latest works of three of the most prominent living composers (Puccini, Humperdinck, and Mascagni) have recently been produced in this country for the first time on any stage, Mr. Andreas Dippel, in a recent address in Chicago, remarked that whereas hitherto "the pilgrimage of American managers to Europe has been the rule, the time is coming, and fast indeed, when the directors and stage managers of European opera houses will come to this side of the Atlantic to obtain their inspiration for the production of new operas abroad." But this is not all about the future of opera in America. Mr. Dippel, who is the best of authorities, maintains that there is a higher aim for which he and others are striving.

That is, the American national opera: American in the full meaning of the word, American as to the performing artists, to the works which shall be performed, and to the language in which they shall be sung. But a few years ago this would have been considered a beautiful but idle dream of a distant future. To-day it is a tangible idea, worthy of serious discussion.

Until now there have been several hindrances to the realization of American national opera. First among these was the scarcity of American artists of the requisite caliber. To-day American artists are found among star singers not only in America, but on the opera stages of the most important centers of music in the Old World. Another difficulty has been that of finding operas composed by Americans and worthy of recognition as real examples of operatic art. This, too, has been disposed of. Mr. Dippel announced to his audience that a grand opera by Victor Herbert was to be produced in New

York "very soon"; and further that, in competition for a prize of \$10,000 offered by the Metropolitan Opera House for an opera "the libretto and also the music of which was to be written by an author born in America," no fewer than thirty works meeting all the imposed conditions had been submitted.

Then again there is the question of language. In this connection Mr. Dippel says:

There is no doubt that there is room for improvement in enunciating the English language for musical purposes. Aside from this, however, it is sufficient to remind you that it has been clearly demonstrated by artists of foreign nationality that it is not the English language which is at fault in reproducing the musical elements of songs. Marcella Sembrich, Johanna Gadski and Alessandro Bonci—I am just mentioning a few names—when singing songs in the English tongue have enunciated the words so admirably that everybody in the audience understood them thoroughly.

It has been recognized by the most prominent European authorities as well as by Americans that it is an error to assume that the English language is not sufficiently musical to be used in grand opera. There is no reason whatever why the works of Richard Wagner, of which we possess splendid translations, should not be sung in English, provided we succeed in training our singers as we are trying to do; that is, to pay as much attention and give as much care to their enunciation as they do to the development of their voices.

Thus the artist's dream of an American national opera is becoming more and more a reality. Whereas a few years ago it was only New York that could boast a permanent home for grand opera, to-day Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston have copied and still other cities will follow New York's example. And the general evolution of conditions is such that one may say without hesitation that the time is ripe for the realization of an American national opera.

THE NEED OF ENGINEERS IN MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION

THE Budget Exhibit, held in New York during the month of October, 1910, was a new thing in municipal administration; it has been described as "a picture-book of the activities of a great corporation," showing the taxpayers just where their money went. The origin of the Exhibit is thus related by Mr. Herbert T. Wade in the *Engineering Magazine*:

The inspiration for this exhibition came from attempts made in 1908 and 1909 by the Bureau of Municipal Research to present to the public by charts and diagrams some significant information in connection with the preparation of the annual budgets of those years. These simple displays were termed budget exhibits, and showed the importance of the work of the bureau, a private agency maintained through the interest of public-spirited citizens to study and investigate matters dealing with municipal administration.

These budget exhibits resulted in arousing public interest in municipal economics, and they also secured a closer analysis by the heads of departments of the items in their requests for appropriations. The good effect of the publicity thus given to municipal matters continued to be increasingly evident, and at length it was decided by the city authorities to hold a similar exhibit in connection with the 1911 budget and to extend its scope. We quote again from Mr. Wade:

The city departments were informed that they could add to their exhibits prepared for the budget proper, physical objects such as apparatus and equipment, photographs and other material that would afford an interesting illustration of work in the various fields of municipal activity. With no attempt at uniformity or standardization . . . there was naturally wide diversity of method and this added to the interest of the spectator. Thus in some departments the exhibits were essentially spectacular and of direct popular appeal, as the prize-winning and notable horses of the Street Cleaning and Fire Departments stabled in the basement along with the most modern apparatus of these departments. In other cases the statistical charts and diagrams were supplemented by complete collections of photographs, while in others actual work of testing was in progress. Especially interesting were the exhibits of those departments where objects of historical importance or illustrative of types were shown.

How broad the scope of the Exhibit was may be gathered from a mere enumeration of some of the charts shown. These included: budget appropriations, borough president's office, Manhattan, 1902 (\$1,840,787.32) to 1911 (\$2,567,409.35); the channels of the city's income and outgo; organization chart of the Bureau of Sewers, Brooklyn; decrease in

fatal street-car accidents following the use of safety devices; aqueducts and pipe lines delivering 80 per cent. of the water supply of Greater New York; some of the sewers of New York (a standard trolley-car drawn to scale is shown, for comparison, standing in one of them); electric lamp-posts. As a means to the study of municipal efficiency or non-efficiency the Budget Exhibit was invaluable. Beginning with the organization of the city government, the citizens were shown diagrammatically the interrelation of the various departments and the accountability of officials and subordinate bureaus. The sources of the city's income; the machinery of assessment; the mechanism of municipal expenditure as provided by the city's charter; the consideration to be given to any proposal for a public franchise—all these were graphically outlined for the visitors to the Exhibit. As bearing on the question of corruption in the purchase of supplies and equipment, reference may be made especially to the exhibition by the Fire Department of a large number of objects illustrating every-day supplies, to each of which was attached a tag stating the price paid. In this department also it was shown that "a year's trial had demonstrated that a motor hose wagon could be maintained at practically the cost of shoeing one of the three horses required for a similar horse-drawn vehicle." In the Bureau of Repairs and Supplies it was shown that the bureau had been able to save from the appropriation of \$912,899 for 1910, no less than \$135,000, a gratifying instance of economy.

But, after stating the various lessons to be learned from the Exhibit, the strong point made by Mr. Wade in his article is the evidence of the absolute necessity of placing competent engineers in the positions of highest administrative authority. The editors of the *Engineering Magazine*, in a foreword to Mr. Wade's paper, point out that during the last thirteen years over 70 per cent. of the revenues from the issues of city corporate stock has been expended on permanent engineering works, and that never before have engineering problems been so prominent in the administration of a large city as shown in the New York Budget Exhibit for 1910. Besides the new Catskill aqueduct in course of construction, involving an estimated outlay of some \$160,000,000, there is the department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity,

and, above all, the Department of Bridges, which not only has four of the largest bridges in the world to look after, but is engaged in building one of the largest office buildings in the City of New York, to provide a terminal for the subway trains crossing to Brooklyn as well as to house many of the city offices,—a simple example of municipal finance. As Mr. Wade says:

In practically every department of the city the work of the engineer and architect is encountered at least in providing the necessary buildings and plant, even if their services are not demanded for the operation. This is shown in the departments of Education, Health, and the various corrective and charitable institutions, of which Bellevue and allied hospitals may be taken as typical for the interesting exhibit that they made of their work and equipment, accompanied by requests for additional appropriations in order to extend it further.

IS SAFETY KEEPING PACE WITH LUXURY IN OCEAN TRAVEL?

AT the present time there is being exhibited in New York City by one of the transatlantic steamship companies a model, complete to the minutest detail, of one of the enormous twin liners in course of construction for passenger service. The model itself is a thing of beauty, leaving no room for doubt as to what the actual ships will be—the finest vessels afloat. No expense is to be spared to attain every conceivable comfort that a man or a woman of means can possibly ask for. According to reports at hand, these new liners will have, among other things:

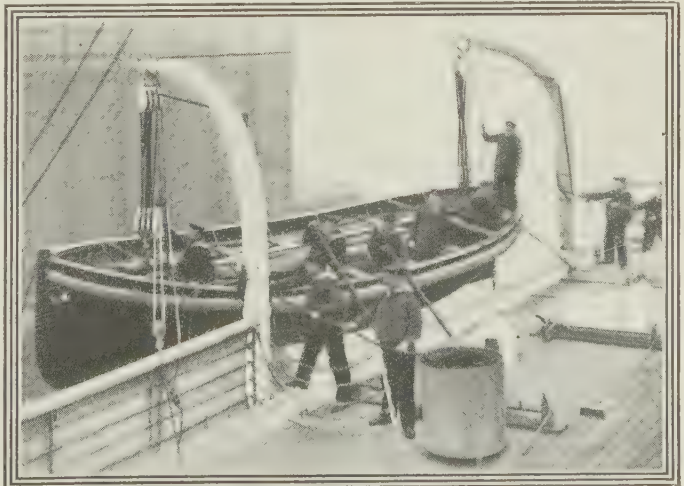
Staterooms with private shower baths; a swimming pool large enough to permit of diving; a ballroom comprising an entire upper deck, which will serve also as a skating rink; a gymnasium abundantly equipped with modern paraphernalia; a café so arranged on one of the upper decks as to render the illusion of a café at a seaside resort as realistic as possible; a grillroom suggesting an old English chop-house, with high-backed stalls and broad, low tables, and a sun-deck representing a flower-garden protected by a glass roof and bedecked with a large variety of tropical plants and foliage.

This is fascinating reading for the average man, who takes it for granted that the steamship company, besides providing the luxurious comforts enumerated, has done everything to insure the safety of passengers in case of shipwreck, and that the boats, rafts, life-belts, etc., are the best that money, experience, and inventive genius can supply. Does the steamship company deserve the confidence and trust thus reposed in it by the public? Mr. E. K. Roden, writing in the *Navy*, says he believes this question

of sufficient importance to warrant the placing of it for a moment or two in the limelight of fair, considerate investigation.

Of several points maintained by this writer, the first is that a ship should be "absolutely independent of assistance from without, because conditions might be such as to place the ship in a position where *she must rely on her own resources.*" But it may be asked, "How, in these days of watertight compartments, can a ship of modern construction sink?" In reply, it will be sufficient to cite some shipwrecks mentioned by Mr. Roden.

The Pacific liner *Dakota*, equipped with 12 bulkheads, sank off the coast of Japan. The *Columbia*, having four watertight bulkheads—one more than required by law in a ship of her size—went down within eleven minutes after being struck, by the *San Pedro*, off the Mendocino coast. The White Star liner *Republic*, equipped with bulkheads and every device for closing her watertight doors, etc., sank, after collision with the *Florida*, off the shoals of Nantucket.



DRILL ON ONE OF THE LARGE OCEAN LINERS IN THE LOWERING OF A LIFE-BOAT

Experience teaches that it is impossible to build an unsinkable ship; lifeboats should therefore form the main auxiliary on which dependence is to be placed in case of wreck. Mr. Roden says he is safe in asserting that not more than two-thirds of the passengers carried by the large ships could be accommodated in the boats and rafts. That the steamship companies do not profess to carry sufficient boats to rescue every one is shown by the following letter from the line operating the *Baltic*, the steamer which rescued the passengers and crew of the ill-fated *Republic*. It was published in the New York *Herald*, January 27, 1909:

It is a well-known fact that it is impossible for a steamship in passenger service to carry enough lifeboats to accommodate all hands at once. If this were done, so much space would be utilized for lifeboats that there would be no room on deck for the passengers. The necessary number of lifeboats would be carried at the cost of many of the present comforts of our patrons.

Another factor of safety to which steamship companies ought to give more attention is that of the davits now in common use. Even with a list of but three or four degrees it is difficult to get boats clear of the high side, and the boat capacity of the ship is thus practically reduced one-half. Then again, in the matter of lifeboats and life-preservers there is strong temptation to the shipbuilder to buy his material where it costs him the

least, and as a result, the shipowner is in many cases furnished with the cheapest kind of material. While ships are growing bigger and bigger, the perils of the sea grow no less, as is shown by a table of losses of life during the past twenty-four years, presented by Mr. Roden in his article. The lowest loss was 252 in 1900, and the highest, 1454 in 1904. To reduce the loss of life to a minimum the coöperation of the shipowner and his willingness to adopt appliances tested and approved by competent authorities must be enlisted. The advertising columns of the marine journals show that there are on the market:

Modern davits by which the heaviest loaded lifeboat can be launched in any weather, whether the ship is listed or not; the line-carrying projectile by means of which a line can be thrown from a stranded ship to the shore for use in rigging the breeches buoy; life preservers that cannot rot; the collapsible lifeboat that, when folded, takes up but one-third the space of an ordinary boat, and other innovations tending to increase the safety of travel by sea.

If the shipbuilders would incur the comparatively small extra expense involved in fitting their new ships with these appliances the advantages to themselves as well as to their patrons would soon be apparent. And, as Mr. Roden remarks, the sooner the realization of this fact is reached, the better for all concerned.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN ENGLAND

THE leaders of the woman-suffrage movement in England can scarcely be considered jubilant over their campaign at the last general election. The *London Review of Reviews* publishes an article by Mrs. Henry Fawcett, president of the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies, in which that lady says:

The balance of parties is practically unchanged by the recent election, and I think it is therefore evident that the practical solution of the Women's Suffrage question must still be sought on non-party lines, *i. e.*, that no suffrage measure which effectually alienated support from one or other of the two chief parties would have a chance of getting through the House of Commons. . . .

Some of our Suffrage friends take an extremely gloomy view of the result of the Suffrage candidatures promoted by the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies during the recent General Election. Of course, in the two constituencies where the Suffrage candidates went to the poll the number of votes they received was insignifi-

cant, but I cannot feel that this small poll is any real measure of the effect of the candidatures.

Writing in the *Englishwoman* also, Mrs. Fawcett holds that the leader of the new government is publicly pledged "to give facilities in the new Parliament for effectively proceeding with a women's suffrage bill, if so framed as to admit of amendment." She admits that while "there is not a shadow of evidence that the existing electorate considers it any drawback to a candidate that he has identified himself with the Suffrage movement," there is a great deal of evidence "that committees and caucuses when they are choosing candidates are just as ready to select an Anti-Suffragist as a Suffragist." Much is naturally made of the result of the Cardiff election, at which the Cardiff Women's Liberal Association, numbering 800 members, refused to work for the Anti-Suffra-



SUFFRAGETTES DETAINED UNDER GUARD IN THE YARD OF BOW STREET STATION, LONDON

gist Liberal candidate, thereby causing the election of the Unionist nominee.

The *London Review of Reviews* prints also an interview with the well-known suffragist, Mrs. Pankhurst. Her interviewer says:

I asked Mrs. Pankhurst to explain the policy followed by the Women's Social and Political Union at the recent election.

"It is very simple," she said; "our whole force was thrown against the Liberal Government, and in those constituencies in which the Liberal majority at the last election was small. We took precisely the same position that Mr. Parnell took in the 1885 election when he instructed his supporters in England to vote against Mr. Gladstone's followers because of the action of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet toward the Home Rule agitation during the years they had been in office, and because he refused to give a satisfactory pledge for the future. As to the result as a whole you must remember we have never pretended that Woman Suffrage was the dominating issue for the bulk of the electors in this contest. What we do claim is that the force we were able to bring to bear was superimposed on the other forces which were at work in such a way that it often turned the balance against the Liberal candidate."

Asked if she considered that the suffragists' policy had been justified by results, Mrs. Pankhurst replied:

"Yes; I think I may say that if we had stood aloof the Liberals would have had some thirty seats more, giving them a majority of over 180.

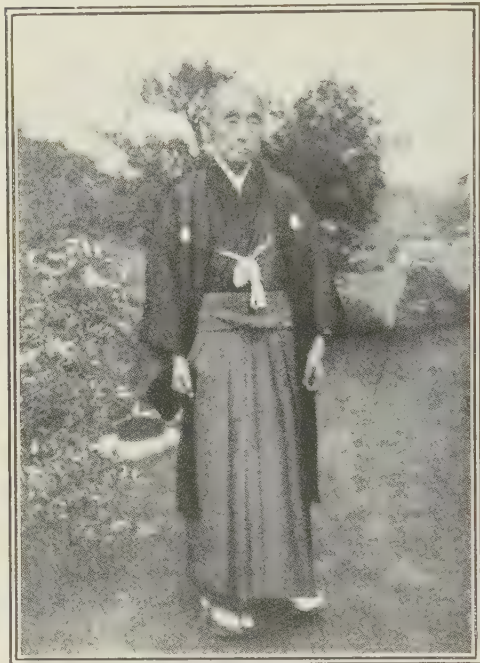
As it is, they come back without gaining a single seat, or perhaps just one."

An article in the *Englishwoman* by Miss Clementina Black gives some details of the method of collecting signatures to the Voters' Petition for the granting of the Parliamentary franchise to women. We read:

By far the greatest number of signatures were obtained outside polling-stations on the day of election. Many women spent from eight to twelve hours standing out of doors, generally in rain or snow, and invariably in very cold weather, appealing to voter after voter, as he came in or out, to sign the petition. . . . British men are not, as a class, imaginative; things out of sight are also out of mind. On this occasion the voteless women were in evidence; the man who went in to vote saw them, visibly and literally shut out—old women, young women, smart women, shabby women, all quiet and peaceful, asking persistently for the right of citizenship. As he came out, he saw them again, chilled, wet, patient, uncomplaining, appealing with their papers and their purple pencils for the support of his name.

As soon as possible after the election the petition is sent to the newly returned Member; and, says this writer, "if that gentleman happens to have gained his seat by a majority considerably smaller than the number of his constituents who have signed, the lesson of the petition is likely to go home."

A VISIT TO THE LAST OF THE SHOGUNS



KEIKI, PRINCE TOKUGAWA, THE LAST OF THE SHOGUNS

(Still living in retirement near Tokyo)

IF the seeker after information concerning the history of Japan should consult a cyclopedia for enlightenment as to the meaning of the word "shogun," he would probably gather the following ostensible facts: that the title (meaning "generalissimo") was adopted in early times in Japan for the commander of each of the four divisions of the Empire; that in 1192 the title "Sei-I-Tai-Shogun" (Barbarian-subduing Great General) was conferred upon Yoritomo Minamoto; that in the Tokugawa family, founded in 1603, the Shogunate became independent of the Emperor and *de facto* ruler of the country; that for several years after 1853 the Shogun was known to foreigners as the Tycoon; and that the office was abolished in 1868—all of which would be true enough with this addition, namely, that Keiki, the last of the Shoguns, really abdicated. The Tokugawa line produced fifteen shoguns; and it was the thirteenth of these, Iesada, who yielded to Commodore Perry's demands and made the treaty under which ports of Japan were opened to the Western world.

Keiki is still living in Japan; and Professor Frederick Starr, of the University of Chicago, gives in *The World To-day* an account of a

visit to him. Speaking of the events which led to Keiki's abdication, he says:

The treaties signed by the Yedo Government [the Shogunate] without the approval of the Emperor, gave ground for complaint. Anti-foreign feeling flourished. . . . Serious complications arose with foreign governments; the whole land was in turmoil. A Hideyoshi or an Iyeyasu might have stemmed the tide; Iesada and Iemochi [his successor] could not. Revolution was in the air; the imperial restoration was the order of the day, an irrepressible conflict threatened. Then came Keiki—in 1866; in 1867 the Mikado Komai died, and the young Mitsuhiro [now still reigning] became the emperor in Kyoto. Open hostilities existed. Keiki abdicated; Mitsuhiro became absolute ruler, and, removing the imperial court from Kyoto to Yedo, renamed the old Shogun's capital, Tokyo.

Professor Starr says he had long wondered what manner of man Keiki really was: "Was he a coward, poltroon, imbecile, or a brilliant example of courage, loyalty, and abnegation?" What had moved him to abdicate?

He was at the time but thirty years of age, rich, legitimately seated, with powerful supporters. Whole provinces were in hostility; the public clamored for the restoration of the Mikado; but Keiki had a fighting chance. . . . Was it irresolution and cowardice, or was it an example of that supreme abnegation which is not uncommon among Japanese?

The Professor visited Keiki at his private house, a typical Japanese home of the wealthier class. The retainer who received the party ushered them into a reception room, expensively but cheerlessly fitted out.

Three chairs were ranged in line on one side of the table for myself, interpreter, and photographer, and on the other side a single chair for our host. . . . A silver dish heaped up with great blocks of sponge cake was conspicuously waiting the foreign guests. We were scarcely seated when the Prince entered; an old man with kindly face and gentle manner. He was dressed in pure Japanese costume, and the famous Tokugawa crest appeared upon his *haori* or ceremonial coat. He received us with quiet dignity and at once served us tea and sponge cake. The tea was creamed and sugared—in Japan and the ex-Shogun's house! We . . . expressed appreciation of the beautiful development of arts and letters under his family's patronage . . . and expressed our unwillingness to return to America without paying our respects. In reply he spoke his appreciation of our visit and good wishes for our home-journey. While we spoke, his youngest son appeared: he is a student at the Imperial University and speaks some English. . . . Before we left, in accordance with a promise, the old Prince was photographed out in the garden. After the picture had been taken I produced my large Japanese autograph album and asked the Prince to write upon the first page, the page of honor. . . . Like every Japanese,

he stated that his chirography was very bad; it would spoil my beautiful book. After some hesitation he promised he would send the album to my house in two days.

When Professor Starr received his album, the old Prince had not written in it, but had written a poem upon a strip of paper suitable

for a *kakemono* or hanging scroll. The poem, freely rendered, says: "Outside, the forest snow melts; the mountain in front glows with brilliant coloring; against the southern sky, the bamboo." Professor Starr regards the Prince as a man "who made one of the great renunciations of history."

MANZANILLO, THE NEW GATEWAY TO MEXICO

AMONG the many monuments of President Diaz's long rule in Mexico, few will testify so strikingly to the wisdom and foresight of his government as the titanic constructions in the harbor of Manzanillo, which have transformed a storm-swept bay into a secure haven wherein a hundred ships may ride at anchor, and have raised Manzanillo itself to the proud position of chief port of Mexico. Manzanillo, on the Pacific shore, lies almost midway between Mazatlan on the north and Salina on the south; it is also a halfway station between the city of Panama and San Francisco, and will undoubtedly profit more than any other Mexican port from the opening of the Panama Canal; and, being connected with the capital by the extension of the Mexican Central Railway, it has become of national importance and a new gateway to Mexico.

It is nearly eleven years since the harbor improvements at Manzanillo were begun—improvements upon which \$8,000,000 (silver)

have already been disbursed and \$6,000,000 are still to be expended. An account of this gigantic undertaking appears in *Cassier's*. The writer, Mr. Harry H. Dunn, states that the work was intrusted by the Mexican Government to Col. Edgar K. Smoot, who had built the Galveston jetties, and that the contract called for:

1. Construction of a breakwater.
2. Dredging of the protected area to a uniform depth.
3. Construction of sea-walls to a height of 3 meters above mean tide.
4. Sanitation of Cuyutlan Lagoon, to give the lagoon connection with the sea at a point known as Ventanas (the windows).

Items 1 and 3 called for immense quantities of durable stone; and, fortunately, a deposit of excellent blue granite was discovered on the Colomo estate, about 9 kilometers from Manzanillo. Rail connection was made with the port, and an incline built down which the blocks were delivered directly to the wharf and breakwater. We condense from Mr.



VIEW OF THE COMPLETED PORT OF MANZANILLO

Dunn's description some interesting details of the building of the breakwater.

The breakwater, which rises from a base 315 feet wide, a solid mass of rockwork absolutely impregnable to the action of the waves, is 26 meters high, and tapers to a crown 8 meters in width. It extends 441 meters out into the sea, and is so constructed that it presents an oblique face to the waves. The monoliths of which part of it is composed are probably the heaviest blocks of granite ever placed by the hand of man, and weigh from 30 to 60 tons each. These cap the outer surface of the breakwater, which below is faced with 30-ton blocks of concrete. The interior slope is capped with granite and concrete blocks of from 5 to 15 tons each. No finer or more effective protection for a harbor was ever carried out.

The sea-walls for the town of Manzanillo have a total extent of more than a mile; and behind them more than 30,000 square meters have been reclaimed from the harbor by depositing coral and other material dredged from the bay.

The completion of the Manzanillo extension of the Mexican Central Railway in December, 1908, opened the markets of Mexico to Pacific commerce, and gave her access to

the Pacific ports of the United States, British Columbia, Central and South America, and the Far East. During the past two years the commerce of Manzanillo has increased 600 per cent. and the steamship service in and out of the port is as good as that of any Pacific port, San Francisco not excepted. Manzanillo is also to have one of the most complete coaling-stations in the New World, with an initial capacity of 500 tons per hour.

As indicated above, works involving an expenditure of \$6,000,000 still remain to be carried out. These include an extension of 200 meters to the present breakwater and the construction of another breakwater having a total length of 1054 meters. The ends of the two will face each other with a distance of 1000 feet between them. The protected area of the harbor will then be increased to 319 acres, and great masonry wharves, each 750 feet long, will project from the sea-wall along the southern shore. The town of Manzanillo itself is also to be provided with perfect drainage and water systems, so that it may offer inducements of a residential nature.

BOURASSA AND THE NATIONALIST MOVEMENT IN CANADA

THE result of the Drummond and Arthurs elections in the Province of Quebec at which a usual Government majority of 1200 was turned into an Opposition majority of over 200, has caused many good judges of political prospects to prophesy that, in the event of a general election in Canada, with the navy question as the paramount issue, there would certainly be a marked change in the political map, especially as regards Quebec. Mr. John Boyd, writing on the Nationalist movement, in the *Canadian Magazine*, is of the opinion that, while there were doubtless several causes which contributed to the defeat of the Government candidate at the election in question, the main factor was undoubtedly the campaign conducted by Mr. Henri Bourassa and his lieutenants, the leaders of the Nationalist movement in the Dominion. What this movement really means is succinctly set forth by Mr. Boyd in an account of an interview with Mr. Bourassa himself. He writes:

While he [Mr. Bourassa] was reviewing the situation, I put to him the straight question: "What is the object of the Nationalist movement?" His reply was equally pointed and unequivocal. "The

Nationalist movement," he said, "is what I may call the search for a common ground for all Canadians, and that common ground, I believe, can be found only in looking to the development of all our Canadian forces, mental, moral and material. You cannot, for instance, get all Canadians to agree in their views as regards Great Britain, but you may get all Canadians to agree on the building up of Canada and the creation of a truly national sentiment throughout the Dominion. And by devoting all our energies to the development of Canada we will, I hold, most effectively help to strengthen the Empire. . . . There is nothing of a racial, religious, or sectional character in the movement, as has been falsely represented; it is an appeal to all Canadians of good-will, whether they be French-speaking or English-speaking, to unite for the welfare of their common country. The movement is essentially Canadian. We want to put the issue perfectly straight—the largest measure of autonomy for Canada compatible with the maintenance of British connection. . . . Let us build up a great country in which the rights of all shall be respected, let us carefully guard our autonomy, and we shall be rendering the best service not only to Canada, but to the whole Empire.

Mr. Bourassa was born in Montreal in 1868; at eighteen he removed to Montebello, of which city he was elected mayor from 1890 to 1894; in 1897 he was elected mayor of Papineauville; and in 1896 he was elected as

a Liberal to represent Labelle in the House of Commons. He resigned his seat in 1899, but was reëlected in 1900 and 1904, and in 1908 was returned by both St. James (Montreal) and St. Hyacinthe, defeating in the former division the prime minister of the province. He is the editor and director of the Montreal *Le Devoir*. To his power as an orator Mr. Boyd pays the following tribute:

Striking as is Mr. Bourassa's personality and charming as he is as a conversationalist, it is upon the hustings that his power is supreme. The Nationalist leader is essentially an orator—a great popular tribune. . . . Great as were Chapleau, Mercier, and Laurier in their days of power, not one of them could electrify a popular gathering as Mr. Bourassa can. Not only does he appear to be himself transformed, but it seems as if his eloquence hypnotizes the whole assemblage. I stood near him when he was addressing ten thousand people gathered on the place d'Armes to commemorate Dollard's heroic exploit; I was in the audience when he addressed twenty thousand people on the Champ de Mars, protesting against insults to the Christian faith; and I was on the platform when, following the Drummond and Arthabaska election, he received a great ovation from ten thousand of his countrymen gathered in the Ontario rink in Montreal. On all these occasions his power as an orator was conspicuous. He begins quietly, and, if you have never heard him before, you may be disappointed at the outset. But wait. It is not long before you are listening with interest, the spell of his voice has begun to work, and as he proceeds a



HENRI BOURASSA, LIBERAL LEADER OF THE FRENCH NATIONALISTS IN QUEBEC

wonderful change is wrought. . . . Some of his most eloquent periods are delivered as he leans over the railing of the platform, fixed and motionless, till, suddenly rising to his full height and seeming to become taller than he really is, he concludes with a burst of impassioned eloquence, directing his invective against his opponents, his words falling like hammer-strokes.

Mr. Bourassa does not indulge in anti-British utterances, as do some of his political contemporaries. On the contrary, addressing a great gathering of Canadians, he once said: "I am loyal to the traditions of the race from which I have sprung; but I am also loyal to the British flag, which we all love and admire."

Associated with Mr. Bourassa as lieutenants and fellow workers are Messrs. Armand Lavergne, one of the most effective campaign speakers in Quebec, Olivar Asselin, author of "A Quebec View of Canadian Nationalism: An Essay by a Dyed-in-the-Wool French-Canadian on the Best Means of Ensuring the Greatness of the Canadian Fatherland," Omer Heroux, Tancrede Mansell, and other devoted enthusiasts. A very important ac-



F. D. MONK, CONSERVATIVE LEADER OF THE NATIONALISTS IN QUEBEC

cession to the ranks of the Nationalists in the Drummond and Arthabaska campaign was Mr. F. D. Monk, M. P., one of those French-Canadian Conservatives who consider that the construction of the fleet proposed by the British Government is to be condemned as entailing a useless and ill-considered expenditure not calculated to help the Empire, while placing upon the Canadian people unfair responsibilities. Mr. Monk's contentions, briefly stated, are:

1. That the navy policy of the Government, the decisions of the Imperial Conference of 1902, the change in our relations with the Empire have intentionally been removed from all expression of

popular opinion and the freedom of that expression denied by the Government, though it was claimed by petition from many thousands of electors from every part of Canada.

2. That the construction of the fleet proposed by the Government is to be condemned as involving a useless and ill-considered expenditure not calculated to help the Empire and violating the principle of representation, while placing upon the Canadian people responsibilities which it was eminently unfair to ask of them to assume under such intolerable conditions.

3. That the enormous sums urgently needed at once for necessary works of development in Canada, such as canals, railways, and other aids to transportation must tax to the very utmost our available resources and credit and that the expenditure absolutely required for the navy could not now be undertaken.

A NATIVE ATTORNEY-GENERAL FOR INDIA

THE Law Membership of the Supreme Executive Council of India is, to quote the *Hindustan Review*, "the most exalted and highest office yet thrown open to Indians"; and to this important position an appointment was made in November of last year which "has been welcomed by all shades of Indian public opinion." The new Law Member is the Hon. Syed Ali Imam, a native Indian, who for several years has held the leading position at the Indian bar. He was born in 1869, and is therefore a young man for the distinguished office he holds. Of

ancient ancestry, Mr. Ali Imam's forebears have, most of them, been prominent in public life; his great-grandfather and grandfather were both judges, and his father is one of the leading physicians in Behar and a brilliant poet to boot. Mr. Ali Imam completed his education in England, and was called to the English bar in 1890, in which year he returned to India, and at once devoted himself exclusively to the practice of law.

Of the many public positions to which Mr. Ali Imam has been elected perhaps the most important is that of the presidency of the All-India Muslem League. In 1909 Mr. Ali Imam visited England; and his addresses on "Indian Nationalism," at Cambridge, and on "The Work Before Us," at the Caxton Hall, London, were remarkable not only for their brilliancy, but also for the evidence they bore of the speaker's desire to promote Indian unity, as shown by such passages as the following:

I am first and foremost an Indian. . . . Mohammedans and Hindus ought to recognize that they should be Indians first, and Mohammedans and Hindus afterward. . . . Government by the people, for the people and through the people, is a very natural adjunct of government by the British. . . . English education has given us Indians a common language, common aspirations and a common patriotism, and it is desirable for the Mohammedans and the Hindus to work together for the development of India, united among themselves and united to Britain. . . . The sectarian aggressiveness which is rampant in our land is the great danger to the country; and all thoughtful Indians ought to put their foot down upon it, for the danger is not so much from without as from within. If in the coming reforms an iron wall is raised between Hindus and Musselmans, there would be an everlasting sacrifice of nationality.



HON. SYED ALI IMAM, THE FIRST NATIVE LAW MEMBER OF THE INDIAN COUNCIL



A SPANISH MINER AND HIS WIFE APPLYING FOR A HOME WHERE THEIR CHILD MAY BE RECEIVED DURING A STRIKE IN WHICH THE FATHER IS ENGAGED

(Reproduced from a photograph taken for *Blanco y Negro*, of Madrid)

NOVEL STRIKE TACTICS IN SPAIN

A NEW method of insuring constancy among striking workmen has been adopted by a number of the Spanish labor unions. The new tactical measure, inaugurated during the recent strike of the miners in the Bilbao region, will be used hereafter by all the Spanish unions.

As is the case the world over, what tends most to break the resistance of the union men on strike is the presence at home of underfed, perhaps sick, children for whom a protracted "lay off" means much suffering. According to an editorial article in *Blanco y Negro*, the illustrated weekly of Madrid, the Spanish labor leaders have hit upon a novel and effective method of removing the men from this influence. We are told that the

union likely to take part in a conflict secures lists of union men's homes whose heads are not burdened by too large a progeny. As soon as a strike is declared in a craft, strikers' children are taken care of by the families of workers in another craft. The additional expense of feeding one child is very slight and can be borne more easily by a family whose head is at work. It also establishes new bonds of sympathy between workers of the various trades.

While the Bilbao miners did not win the strike outright, they were enabled to wait for a fair settlement of their grievances, and the pitiful scenes which generally accompany a cessation of work in the mining districts were avoided.

CODDLING THE CRIMINAL

UNDER this suggestive and appropriate title Mr. Charles C. Nott, Jr., Assistant District Attorney of New York, contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* a really valuable article on the present state of our criminal law, in which he sets forth the numerous safeguards which the law throws around persons accused of crime. Out of 6401 cases of felony disposed of in the county of New York, for example, in 1909, after various processes of winnowing down—e.g. 1342 dismissed by grand jury; 928 recommended discharged by district attorney; 481 bail forfeitures, etc., 3650 remained, in 2602 of which the defendants pleaded guilty. There were thus left 1048 cases; and 585 of these were acquitted by direction of the court or by verdict, leaving only 463 cases in which any mistake against a defendant could have been committed; and in each of these a jury of twelve men returned a verdict of guilty. Now the law still further safeguarded the rights of these men; for the right of appeal was allowed them while it was denied to the state in any cases in which it had been unsuccessful. The appalling amount of crime in the United States compared with other civilized countries, says Mr. Nott, is due to the fact that it is generally known that the punishment for crime is uncertain and far from severe. The uncertainty is largely due to the extension in our criminal jurisprudence of two principles of our common law, which were originally just and reasonable, but the present application of which is both unjust and unreasonable. These two principles are: that no man shall be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb for the same offense; and that no man shall be compelled to give evidence against himself. On the first of these Mr. Nott says:

It is obvious that the rule was intended to prevent a defendant's being arbitrarily retried after an acquittal—a purpose with which no one can find fault; and it is no less obvious that the rule never contemplated that a retrial should be granted to a defendant after the reversal on appeal of a conviction, but should be denied to the state after a reversal of an acquittal on appeal. In other words, the common law said to the state: "As neither side can appeal, a verdict either way shall settle the litigation, and you shall not continue trying a defendant over and over again until you obtain a favorable verdict." It did not say: "A retrial after a reversal of an acquittal is duly had in an appellate court constitutes the forbidden second jeopardy."

The fact that a defendant can appeal from a conviction, and can review on appeal all errors committed by the trial judge or any misconduct on the part of the district attorney, while the state can

take no appeal from an acquittal, no matter how glaring may be the errors of the trial judge or the misconduct of the defendant's attorney, has an enormous practical effect on the conduct of the trial. . . . It is a safe assertion that, under our present system, fully seventy-five per cent. of judgments of acquittal could be reversed on appeal for errors committed against the prosecution.

With regard to the second principle, that no man be compelled to give testimony against himself, Mr. Nott says "it is warped and stretched out of all reason and justice." It was "originally intended to prevent the use of the rack and the thumbscrew to wring a true confession from a guilty man, or a false confession from an innocent man."

What objection is there in reason to calling, through a magistrate, upon a defendant immediately upon his arraignment, to state his explanation, upon pain of being precluded from testifying upon the trial, if he refuse to give such explanation when required by the magistrate? . . . To-day we have a practice under which an accused is made acquainted with the case against him, even to being furnished with the names of the witnesses who have testified against him before the grand jury; the accused stands mute save for his plea of "not guilty," and comes into court with a defense unknown to the prosecutor, and with witnesses whose names are not known to the district attorney until they are called to the stand, when, of course, it is too late (in the ordinary criminal trial) to investigate them. The defense knows that it has everything to gain, and nothing to lose, by getting into the case anything and everything favorable to the defendant, whether competent or not, and by trying to keep out everything unfavorable to him, no matter how material, relevant, and competent; the defendant's counsel knows that no misconduct on his own part will be subjected to judicial review and criticism, and a large proportion of the criminal bar customarily resort to methods in the preparation of their defenses and the trial of their cases which would not be tolerated on the part of the district attorney.

All of this state of affairs could, in Mr. Nott's judgment, be changed by two alterations of the law: the first granting a right of appeal to the state to review all errors committed upon the trial; and the second providing for an examination by the committing magistrate, and forbidding the defendant to take the stand upon his trial in case of his refusal to answer. Both sides would then come into court apprised respectively of the cause of action and the defense; the number of perjured defenses would decrease and the number of honest pleas would increase; and trials would be conducted with fairness to both sides and due regard to the law of evidence.

ITALY, "A LAND OF CRISES"

TWO opinions prevail in Italy, several of the reviews of that country tell us, touching Italian financial conditions. Some call her the first country in the world. For others she is the last country on earth. She lacks both business ability and business honesty, the spirit of self sacrifice, and thrift. Both parties, however, agree perfectly when it comes to reaching forth for public funds, for the tax payers' money.

The first class needs funds to further optimistic schemes, the others "to dry up tears." In Italy, to quote *Economista dell'Italia Moderna* (Rome) whenever state intervention is mentioned, "you would think the state was a providential entity, whose mission is to come and help everybody; everyone forgets that the state is merely a trustee of the public treasury."

From every part of the country appeals are addressed to the state for help, for subventions, for support, things very easy to obtain. If only a goodly number of people get together, pull the right political wires and use their deputies judiciously, they always stand a good chance of seeing their little interests raised to the dignity of a national problem which the state will have to solve. From every point of the compass come groups of victims who must be succored; everywhere are heard moans and sobs over some industry or trade struck by a crisis. A crisis! This is the word which never fails to move the parliament, the government, the country. No longer is Italy the fair land of orange blossoms but the land of crises.

We have the crisis of the truck gardens,

says the writer of the article referred to, of the cotton crop, of the silk, of the wine, of the oil, to mention only those most talked about. Here is a typical example:

Last year, after two plentiful wine crops, the deepest anxiety was felt over the crisis of the wine industry, and the Government was called upon with the utmost insistence to grant subsidies to the viticulturists impoverished by abundant crops. This year a rather poor crop has been deemed sufficient cause for new lamentations, and has prompted certain people to demand a state intervention in favor of the same industry, which has only emerged from the crisis of overproduction to fall into a crisis of underproduction. The latter has enabled wine growers, however, to raise their prices and to recoup their losses. The consumer is left to make the cheerful observation that, while the crisis of overproduction did not lower the price of wine, the crisis of underproduction has brought about a sudden rise in prices.

The author adds in conclusions these vigorous words:

We cannot deny that there are cases when the paternal intervention of the State is desirable, provided the private interests at stake are in full harmony with the public weal; for instance, when a trade or industry finds itself for special reasons in temporary embarrassment. What must be curbed, however, is the mania for speculating on crises to which our country seems addicted, a mania which is allowed to spread by the facility and the promptness with which the money of the tax payers is placed at the disposal of those who beg cleverly under the pretence of fostering national interests.

CATHOLICS AND CLERICALS IN ITALY

ITALIAN Catholics object strongly, a writer tells us in the *Rassegna Nazionale* of Rome, to the appellation of clericals bestowed upon them currently by their enemies. Clericalism belongs to the past; it is a dead issue, they claim. Says the writer:

When in 1870 the Italian troops entered Rome, all the Catholics devoted to the Pope arose and protested violently, declaring that Rome would soon, either through some foreign intervention or through a divine miracle be returned to her former ruler.

The Catholics of those times persisted in calling the King of Italy an usurper, thus ignoring the Roman plebiscite and the unanimous approval of the nation which made that usurpation as legitimate, if not in point of right at least in fact, as any other warlike conquest. Rome had simply passed into the hands of a new master and since no one was protesting any longer against France's losing Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, against Nice and Savoy having become French, why should it have been impossible for Rome to become Italian? To

this it was objected that the Pontiff deprived of his capital could not commune freely with the Catholic world. This was the type of clericalism which the liberals fought and have been fighting these past forty years. But during those forty years it has been demonstrated that reverence for the authority of the Pope was not irreconcilable with the exercise of the national sovereignty and that modern Italy can respect the Supreme Pontiff while leaving him perfectly free to shepherd the flock of Christ. . . .

The new Catholicism is very different from the old Clericalism of Don Marzotti and his companions, continues the *Rassegna*:

To-day no one speaks of returning Rome to the Pope and whenever a pontifical document makes mention of temporal claims, the august voice sounds rather timid; no one heeds the appeal for all know that it is only the echo of a past never to return, fortunately for Italy, and I may venture to add, fortunately for the Church. Catholics are ex-

panding their efforts on organization work and their awakening is truly marvelous. Everywhere we notice associations of many kinds, all modern in spirit and management, coöperative banks, people's houses, recreation centers for the young, etc.; there is no field which the Catholics have not entered, be it to help the poor, to educate the masses or to carry the word of Christ into the heart of society which has forgotten it. Catholicism is also gradually conquering the proletariat and will soon check the advance of socialism which inspires no more faith, having abused too long the confidence of the people. . . . The future will see two great parties pitted against each other, Liberals and Catholics on one side, Socialists and Republicans on the other.

This is, the author thinks, the reason why

so many attacks are directed against the Catholics, designated by their opponents as clericals.

Catholics were not considered as dangerous when they contented themselves with bemoaning the loss of the temporal power. . . . Now that they are devoting themselves to work fecund and beneficial, fanatics realize they have become a mighty ally of the conservative party. . . . We must not let the public believe, that we, the Catholics of to-day, are the Clericals of 1870. We love our fatherland and are ready to sacrifice our blood and life in its defence. Those who call themselves Catholics and do not look at the situation in this spirit are fanatics and we will have nothing to do with them.

OUR ITALIAN PROBLEM

WHILE public attention has from time to time been attracted or directed to immigration perils, real or imaginary, in the West, there has been gradually growing up in the East, and more particularly in the City of New York, an immigration problem which, though not an insoluble one, is likely to call for considerable care in the handling: it is the Italian problem. Of the 2,000,000 or more Italians in the United States, more than 500,000 live in the City of New York; and at the present rate of increase it seems probable that in 1917 or 1918 the Italian population will number 1,000,000, or one-sixth of the residents, instead of one-eighth as to-day. What effect is this great tide of immigration likely to have upon the well-being of the City of New York in particular and of the country in general? This question is discussed in a remarkably able and exhaustive fashion by Dr. Alberto Pecorini in the January *Forum*. Dr. Pecorini, himself an Italian, took special courses at Columbia University, and was from 1904 to 1909 professor of Italian in the International College at Springfield, Mass. He has traveled extensively in the United States and made a special study of his countrymen from east to west. He is also head of the Italian-American Civic League for the promotion of the civic and social welfare of the Italians in New York. As of an Italian upon Italians his remarks have a special value; and the more so as he has treated his subject quite impartially both from the American and the Italian points of view.

Dr. Pecorini reminds his readers that there was a time when Italian immigrants were received with open arms in the American metropolis. This was what might be called the heroic period of Italian immigration—

"when Garibaldi lived in a poor framehouse on Staten Island and worked as a candle-maker in a shop in Bleecker Street." To-day the average American "feels somewhat uneasy when he thinks of the immense number of Italian immigrants crowding into New York and other large cities of the East; and the attraction of the public attention to the condition of the Italian quarters, the personal appearance of the Italian laborer, and newspaper headlines about Italian criminals, has caused the former sympathy with the Italian to disappear to a large extent. The picture drawn of life in the Italian quarters is not a pleasant one. We read:

In the Italian quarters the life is that of the tenement. The families are usually large, and in most of them boarders are taken with a view to eking out the payment of the rent. There are tenements occupied by Italians in New York in which eight and ten men sleep in one room, with not more than 1,500 cubic feet of air to breathe, for eight or nine hours. Very often a whole family occupies a single sleeping room, children over fourteen years of age sleeping with their parents or with smaller brothers and sisters. The first consequence of this overcrowding is an astonishing decline in physical strength. Thousands of Italians who come to New York robust and healthy go back every year to their native country to die. The records of the Board of Health show that the death rate among the Italians in New York is higher than that of any other nationality, being no less than 36.43 in the thousand, as against an average of 18.71, the next highest being that of the Irish, 23.55, and the lowest that of the Germans, 12.13, while that of native Americans is 13.98. Consumption and bronchopneumonia are the most fatal diseases among adult Italians, and diphtheria and measles (both easily cured if treated in time) the principal causes of the high death rate among the children, because of the ignorance of the Italian mothers.

Ignorance is, indeed, the cause of most of the evils of Italian immigration in this country. Almost 50 per cent. of all Italian adults in New York are

illiterate; and, as a whole, they form a mass of faithful and honest workers—the most useful, and in a certain sense the most needed, if not the most desirable. These are the men who excavate the subways, clean the streets, work at the cement foundations of the skyscrapers, and build the great railway stations. Their ignorance, however, creates a number of problems that otherwise would not exist.

Illiteracy is indeed the *bête noir* of Italian immigration. Very often the Italian banker, real estate man, and grocer are themselves half-illiterate; and “there are Italian lawyers and professional men with diplomas from renowned universities acting as clerks to half-illiterate bankers and contractors at salaries of from \$6 to \$10 per week.” Then there is the son of the little merchant in Italy who “served three years in the army, and went to prison for making fun of his peasant corporal, and who finally landed in America without any trade, and what is worse, with no inclination or intention to work.” A few of these derelicts find fields of honest activity, but “a large number of them unite with the few criminals escaped from Italy, and form a class of half-educated malefactors—the ‘Black Handers.’” There is another way in which ignorance among Italians in America breeds criminals.

The children born in this country of the Italian illiterate laborer never see a book or a newspaper in their homes, until they bring them there from the public schools. These children cannot help making comparisons between the palatial surroundings of the school and the squalid tenements in which they live; between the intelligence, knowledge and grace of the teachers and the ignorance and bad manners of their own parents. The illiterate Calabrian or Sicilian has a much larger grounding of sound common sense than his American child, who has studied history, geography, arithmetic, and a number of other beautiful things, but the youngster who has reached the eighth grade becomes vain of his knowledge and too often looks with disdain upon his unlettered parents. If the illiterate father succeeds in swearing falsely as to the age of his child, and sends him to work at the age of twelve, the chances are that he will make of him an honest and industrious worker and a second-rate citizen. If, however, the boy goes on to the ninth grade, he too often breaks from the influence of his parents, when he begins a career of idleness in the pool-room, continues it in the saloon, and ends in the reformatory or the jail. The breaking up of family ties results even more disastrously in the case of girls, but fortunately natural instinct keeps them more securely under the influence of the mother. The younger American-educated Italian criminals already constitute a much graver problem than the uneducated criminal from Italy, or the older Italian criminals created by environment in this country.

All this is a picture of the very worst fea-

tures of Italian life in America. Dr. Pecorini admits that he has presented them purposely because “one of the most discouraging features of the situation has been the lack of serious study, by the Italians, of conditions among themselves in the new land.” The outlook is really encouraging, he adds. “Immigration is improving. The Italians who have come to New York in recent years are mainly representatives of the different trades. There are 15,000 Italian tailors, some of them employed in the best establishments, besides thousands of printers, electricians, mechanics, etc.,” all of them among the most sober, honest and industrious of workmen. “The retail fruit business and the artificial flower industry are almost entirely in the hands of Italians. Italian bankers doing a legitimate business are increasing; and the Savoy Trust Company (founded as the Italian-American Trust Company) was one of the institutions that weathered the panic of 1907, and to-day has deposits of \$2,000,000. There are nearly 400 Italian physicians in New York, most of them respectable and able men.”

The Italian press is “not serving as an interpreter of American life and ideals to its constituency.” But there “are two Italian dailies that enjoy the distinction of having refused money for support of a political cause at a municipal election.”

In three distinct fields—truck farming, intensive agriculture, and fruit raising—the Italian has proved an unqualified success; and of the future of the Italian so engaged there need be no doubt. The need of the urban Italian is a civic need. While the proportion of voters among other foreign nationalities ranges from 15 per cent. to 25 per cent., the proportion of voters among Italians is but 3 per cent. The better elements “have not identified themselves with the community in which they live, and there is not an Italian holding an important municipal office.” These conditions, says Dr. Pecorini, “are abnormal, unhealthful, and they may become disastrous. They must be changed. Desirable Italian residents must become American citizens, and must take away the direction of their politics and the protection of their interests from the dealers in votes. Citizens are needed far more than voters. To organize all educational agencies working among Italians and make them transform this inert, dead mass into a living, progressive force, is an immediate necessity. . . . Only thus may what seems now a peril be made a blessing.”

WHITE SNOBBERY IN THE FAR EAST

"I BELIEVE the European snob in Asia is distinctly the enemy of the civilized West. And his coadjutor in this country is a fitting criminal yoke-fellow." So writes Mr. Melville E. Stone, president of the Associated Press and an experienced traveler, in the *National Geographic Magazine*. Mr. Stone entitles his paper "Race Prejudice in the Far East," but it is evident from the incidents he records and the unchallengeable facts that he presents that for "prejudice" we must now read "snobbery." He reminds us that "whatever our ignorance of, or indifference for, the Orientals in the past, it is well to note that conditions, both for us and for them, have entirely changed within the last decade." There is, as he says, a new United States and a new Asia. One was created by the Spanish War; the other, by the Russo-Japanese conflict. The Asian has discovered that a yellow man behind a gun is quite as effective as a white man; and the question is "What is to be the outcome?" How long "will the 6000 soldiers we have in the Philippines be able to keep our flag afloat among 8,000,000 of natives? How long will the 75,000 English soldiers in India be able to maintain British sovereignty over 300,000,000 of Asians?" Mr. Stone is convinced that there is real danger awaiting us, if we do not mend our ways. We shall never meet the problems growing out of our relation with the Far East unless we "absolutely and once for all put away race prejudice." In illustration of the paragraph at the head of this paper, Mr. Stone gives some incidents which came under his personal observation and which we reproduce here in brief:

From Bombay to Yokohama there is not a social club at any port or treaty point where a native, whatever his culture or refinement, will be admitted. Last year at the Bengal Club, Calcutta, a member aroused such a storm of opposition by inviting a Eurasian gentleman—*i. e.* a half native and half European—to dine with him, that the matter was only adjusted by setting aside the ladies' department and allowing the offending member and his guest to dine there alone. . . . While in Calcutta I attended a ball at Government House, and noted that while native princesses were dancing with white men, a score of native gentlemen stood about as "wallflowers." Calling Lady Minto's attention to the fact, she explained that no white woman would think of dancing with a native: it would mean social ostracism. . . . The son of a maharaja, educated at Oxford or Cambridge, may be honored by an invitation to Windsor; but when he goes back home he may enter no white man's club, no white woman will associate or dance with him, and, if he haply marry a European, he, his wife, and his

children become outcasts. . . . Although native troops have shown undying loyalty to the British flag, and have exhibited the highest courage, no one of them ever has received or ever can receive the Victoria Cross.

Mr. Stone is careful to say that he is not criticising British rule in India: indeed he does not doubt the desire of the administration to do for India all that Christianity and humanity may dictate; but there is a danger that the line of cleavage may pass from a religious to a racial one, and this danger grows with every hour. He reminds us that we, too, are involved in similar cases of race prejudice in other parts of Asia. A minister of the Japanese Crown, a graduate of Harvard, told him a story, in substance as follows:

When Perry came to Japan, followed by Townsend Harris, it was stipulated that the Japanese should give them ground for a legation and consulates. They did so. Yokohama was then a mere fishing village. Merchants and traders followed, and ground was given them also for shops. The British and Russians who came soon after received similar concessions. A racetrack, cricket-field, and golf-links were desired, and ground was given for these also. When the city expanded, the cricket-field became the center of the town. The town authorities wished to use it and to give another piece of land in the suburbs, to which convenient trains now ran. The foreigners demurred; and the town compromised by paying for the improvements on the cricket-field and furnishing a new one free of cost. The foreigners also declined to pay taxes on their buildings, and this question is now before the Hague court. Yet, no native Japanese gentleman has ever been permitted to enter the club house or grand stand, or to play upon the cricket-field.

In the Philippines "a ruffian American soldier, recruited from the purloins of New York, shoves a native gentleman from the sidewalk of Manila with an oath, calling him a 'nigger.' Yet that 'nigger' is very likely a cultivated gentleman, educated at the Sorbonne in Paris."

These conditions, says Mr. Stone, cannot long endure. Politically we are in grave danger; and Americans will do well to ponder the following facts:

Commercially, with their industry and frugality, the members of the yellow race are fast outstripping us. They have ceased buying flour from the Minneapolis mills because they are grinding Indian and Manchurian wheat with Chinese labor at Woosung. A line of ships is running from the Yellow River to Seattle, bringing 72,000 tons a year of pig iron manufactured at Hankow, and delivered, freight and duty added, cheaper than we can produce it. In Cawnpore, India, with

American machinery, they are making shoes so cheaply that the manufacturers of Lynn can no longer compete with them. The cottons and silks which we at one time sent to Asia are now made in Japan and China.

Socially the cry of the yellow race is: "Stop cheating us; stop swindling us; stop

treating us as your inferiors who are to be beaten and robbed." Japan says: "Leave to us the question whether Japanese laborers shall go to America, and we will stop them. But do not admit the lazzaroni of Hungary and Italy and Russia because they are white, and shut us out because we are yellow."

MODERN WATER SUPPLY FOR CHINESE CITIES

THE horribly polluted state of the drinking water used by the mass of the Chinese people has often been commented upon. Without doubt local conditions, the density of the population, certain national characteristics, all combine to render very difficult any attempt to secure pure water. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that the Chinese, in their devotion to tea, are accustomed to refresh themselves with a beverage for which the water has been boiled. Yet the fact remains that much, one might say everything, remains to be done in this important field. Recently, according to a writer in *Cosmos*, a very noteworthy movement has been inaugurated, as a result of which several public water supply projects have come into being, as commercial propositions, where nothing of the sort had hitherto been thought of.

It is true that one of these projects has been developed on the island of Formosa, that is, among Chinese people but at the instance of the Japanese Government, in whose control the island has rested since the Chino-Japanese War. This is only one of the schemes which have been devised, having for their object the betterment, at any rate a change in the customs, of the conquered Chinese. The city of Taïpen, the capital of the island, is now supplied with water from reservoirs some three miles from the source of supply. These reservoirs have been in process of construction for about two and a half years and have cost about a million dollars, together with the pumps, mains and filters. The water is drawn from the Shinten River and flows into two decantation-basins having a diameter of 160 feet and a depth of 15 feet; from these it passes into the filters, which are six in number and measure 100 by 120 feet. After filtration, pumps lift the water to a pure-water reservoir 15 feet deep, from which it is distributed by mains, but only after having passed through six other sand filters. At present, in addition to the home-distribution, public fountains through-

out the town supply pure water to the native population. The charge for the water is at the rate of fifty cents a month for a family of five persons. The plant installed is capable of supplying three times the amount of water now consumed.

And now Peking, the most Chinese of all Chinese cities, the one which sets the fashion, is to have a public water supply. A German company has contracted to install the plant for a lump sum of one million dollars. It is interesting to note that American factories have supplied the iron mains and machinery needed for the impounding and distribution of the water.

The water is drawn from the Shaho River, which rises in the mountains to the west of Peking, in a region which fortunately does not boast a single village; consequently the water is pure. Even the tombs which are thickly scattered throughout all the densely populated portions of China, are notably few along the banks of the Shaho. At Sunho lift-pumps raise the river water to the decantation-basins, from which it passes to the filter-beds; these are of the usual type, lined with sand and gravel. Finally the filtered water reaches a great reservoir built at Tung-chih-men, near the northeast gate of Peking; this reservoir is constructed of concrete and a park is to be laid out upon its roof. For distribution, the filtered water is pumped from this reservoir to a water-tower 170 feet high, capable of holding over 900 cubic yards. Two sets of lift- and force-pumps have been installed, either of which is capable of maintaining the supply in the tower. The pressure exerted in the distributing mains of the city is sufficient, in case of a fire, to throw a stream of water 100 feet in the air.

The plant will furnish water over an area occupied by a population of 700,000, where infectious diseases have always been rife. The water will be sold at the rate of 6.5 cents per cubic yard. The company will be managed exclusively by Chinese—which is another indication of the efforts the Orientals

are making to free themselves from all European control.

It may as well be added that, in many other

towns, as, for example, Moukden, preparation is being made for the installation of systems of public water supply.

A PLEA FOR THE PRUSSIAN BUREAUCRACY

THE constant growth of federal authority in this country and the possible development of an American bureaucracy give particular interest to an exculpatory article contributed by Erich Lilienthal, a well-known German journalist, to *Samtiden* (Christiania). He maintains that those who see in Prussian bureaucratic methods one of the principal hindrances in the path of oncoming democracy, do not fully understand what those methods imply. To him they mean, first and last, systematization and organization—the substitution of collective order for individual chaos. And he ventures to assert that when democracy in its fullest sense finally arrives, it will have for its principal foundation those abhorred methods of bureaucracy.

He sees the main cause of the existing hatred against Prussian officialdom in the corps spirit which has been essential to its upbuilding and which is misunderstood and abused by irresponsible underlings only. Yet he finds a historical justification even for this wrong-headed attitude toward the mass of the people. For, in order that the vast, wonderful machinery may function properly the individual must needs surrender parts of his personality to the whole. His main reward for this sacrifice of personal initiative lies in the feeling that he belongs to the government of a great people—to a government in the true sense of that word. "For," says this Berlin writer significantly, "the Prussian official governs actually, be he a minister of state or only a policeman." He rules every phase of the social and economical field, and—in spite of all criticism at the hands of a strong and well-founded opposition—his methods are so excellent that the Social Democracy itself, the bitterest antagonist of the official administration, has the adoption of those same well-tried methods to thank for its great success.

For the selfsame methods that the official class have drilled into the people are now being used by the Socialists for the unification of its vast hordes of voters. And what is true of the Social Democracy holds good also in regard to the other great organizations that have achieved anything—it applies to the Clericals not less than to the Hansatic Union and the League of Landed Proprietors. Always and everywhere recur the same methods that have been evolved by the bureaucracy. If

some time the call to arms against the prevailing régime should be sounded in Prussia, the revolutionaries will not pour out chaotically on improvised barricades, but, appearing in numberless regiments and moving together according to well-considered plans, they will calmly tear down one rampart after another.

But the revolution will never come in Prussia, says Mr. Lilienthal. It could be provoked only by a criminal egoism, of which not even the party of the landed nobility, the "junkers," can be held capable. The principal guarantee against any such upheaval he finds in the fact that the bureaucracy is not so reactionary at heart as is generally supposed. If that class were what it has been pictured, how could it then be possible, he asks, that Germany's social insurance and its legislation for the protection of the workmen have been fostered by that very class?

What the Prussian official may be accused of is not so much reactionary tendencies as rather too great deliberation in its progress. Considering the intricacy of its apparatus, it works rapidly enough, however, and knows how to assimilate much of the new that is daily coming to the front. And one must never forget that when the old Prussia was created, it was the official class alone that had grasped the idea of a state and was thus enabled to take leadership within the nation. Its task was to educate numerous groups, brought together by war or dynastic treaties, into a sense of national unity.

Now, when the people has reached maturity, those that have ruled it find it hard to surrender their power. And they demand, above all, that the social structure created by them shall not be endangered by haphazard reforms, that do not fit into that structure.

But this careful policy of reserve toward the currents of the time will not prove feasible much longer. The modern spirit, born by modern industry, holds the whole country captive, and it must take possession of the official as well, if he is to remain capable of administering the country in the future. That there must be a change in the composition of the official class has already become clear to the government. Hitherto the upper and middle strata of the bureaucracy have been recruited from the landed nobility and the old judicial families. In the future we shall gradually see sons of manufacturers, of engineers, of merchants, take charge of the leading government positions.

The appointment of Dernburg, the president of the Darmstadt Bank, as National Secretary of State for the Colonies was symptomatic of the impending change.

Mr. Lilienthal asserts that it has become clear even to the Emperor himself that past feudalism will no longer stand the test of modern conditions. Other German rulers have advanced far beyond the national head in this matter. They are more and more surrendering their powers to the people, and it seems likely that the democratization of

the imperial office and the bureaucracy will be accomplished simultaneously. In Southern Germany the monarchs are already democratic, and a personality like the Grand Duke of Hesse would, thinks Mr. Lilienthal, anywhere be classed as a member of the "Liberal Left." But even in Prussia, he adds, conservatives and close associates of the monarch, like Professor von Schmoller, have lately insisted that the government must take the lead in suffrage reform unless it wants to lose its entire hold on the reins.

WILL ULTRA-MICROSCOPY EXPLAIN THE MYSTERY OF MATTER?

MR. EDISON recently expressed the opinion that, eventually, science must prove that what is now termed the spiritual is identical with what we call matter, in respect of the basic energy that underlies and involves its structure, and that further discoveries in science would eventually reveal the intrinsic identity of mind and matter. The great electrician was careful to emphasize the vast importance which ultra-microscopy must play in future scientific research, inasmuch as it may unfold to us the mystery of the atomic and molecular worlds, and indicate the point of contact between what has been termed (by Fournier d'Albe) the infra-world and the actual world.

Naturally, the future of ultra-optical science possesses an importance that cannot be overlooked, and all the more so that (according to the experts) ordinary direct microscopy has reached its limit. An article by M. Houllevigue, in the *Revue de Paris*, is, therefore, of great interest. Referring to the perfection reached by opticians, he says:

Germany has outstripped all other countries in her attention and devotion to this important instrument of scientific research. Her scientists have definitely reached the conclusion now that the infra-world, or the sub-atomic domain, can only be observed by indirect effects of light. It is not, we know, sufficient to obtain enlarged pictures or views; it is also necessary to illuminate them. An increase of 1000 diameters does not always bring a corresponding increase of light. In order, therefore, to effect our research, it is necessary to obtain this light, and that is what ultra-microscopy is successfully attempting to do. Take, for example, the finest kind of microscope, fully equipped. With a lense of 500 diameters, we see more than with 50; and with 1000 or 2000 more than with less. Nevertheless (as in photography), a point arrives at which it is no longer possible to distinguish details. The retina of the eye is so constituted that, at a given point, the power of receiving impres-

sions is beyond its sensitiveness, no matter how efficient or powerful the intervening lenses. We cannot see molecules with the best microscope, any more than we could distinguish bees, with the naked eye, at a distance of twenty miles.

There is no hope, therefore, that simple microscopy is going to unfold to us the mystery of ultimate particles, the human eye having its well-determined limitations. Nor do the colored rays afford us much more ground for hope, since, after a certain point, the eye is insensible to the effect of colors. Nevertheless, it is along the lines of angular diffraction of light that the solution appears to be realizable. The Germans, Siedentopf and Zsigmondy, have developed this new line in ultra-microscopy. Says M. Houllevigue:

Just as the stars are visible to us only as circles of diffracted light, so the most minute particles that become visible to the eye when a ray of the sun penetrates a room are only visible to us through the process of light waves breaking against infinitesimal particles, or aggregations of particles, and thus creating the impression, on the eye, of visible matter. It is thus seen that an infinitesimal particle acts in space as if it were in reality itself a luminous body; and so, if it is isolated in an obscure background, it is possible to discern its existence if not its form, and to follow it in its movements. If there be several such points in the area of vision, it becomes possible to compare them, and estimate their size from the quantity and color of the light diffracted. Angular diffraction of light is, accordingly, the theory on which ultra-microscopy rests. And as to the enormous advance which has been made over simple or direct microscopy, it suffices here to say that before its discovery the naked eye could only discern with the most powerful microscope the twentieth part of a micron—a micron being one-thousandth part of a millimetre—and that with difficulty. This dimension is, however, scores of thousands of times greater than atomic or molecular dimensions. Yet by means of the ultra-microscope it would suffice.

that molecules should be but 10,000 (ten thousand) times greater for their action to become apparent to the researches of ultra-microscopy. It may be said, consequently, that the basic chemical origins

or essence of matter must, in the process of the development of the new optics, become known to science, and perhaps finally explain the mystery of life.

THE LIMIT OF ORGANIC LIFE IN OUR SOLAR SYSTEM

WHILE discussing "planetary atmospheric envelopes" in *Nordisk Tidskrift* (Stockholm), Prof. Svante Arrhenius, the noted Swedish physicist and Nobel prize winner, takes up the old question of the possible or probable habitability of the various bodies grouped around our own sun. He concludes that only two of these bodies are likely to hold organic life at the present time. In this respect his position does not differ from that of our own Professor Lowell. But when he comes to name those two bodies, it is seen that he and Lowell hold practically antipodal views.

Since the death of Schiaparelli, Lowell is probably the foremost champion of the view that ascribes not only life, but the equivalent of human life of a highly developed type, to Mars. Arrhenius, on the other hand, assumes with Campbell that the Martian atmosphere has already been thinned out to an extent that precludes the very thought of organic existence. Where water has all but disappeared; where the land is a salty desert, and where the temperature ranges from $-155^{\circ}\text{C}.$ to $-200^{\circ}\text{C}.$, there life, as it is found in the simple amoeba no less than in complex man, must be held out of the question. And the conditions just described are those which Arrhenius thinks characteristic of Mars in its present stage.

Equally marked is his opposition to Lowell when Venus is considered. Of the beauteous evening star our own authority tells us that it is always turning one side toward the sun, so that while one of its hemispheres burns the other freezes—and again life is ruled out. Not so, cries the Swede—if it be permissible to speak of his polished and dispassionate sentences as a "cry."

It seems likely that conditions in Venus are about the same as on our earth. For Venus comes very close to possessing the principal characteristics of our own globe. Thus, for instance, it has a very dense atmosphere, in which heavy clouds and large masses of planetary dust are held in suspense. It is this atmosphere which hides the surface of the planet from our view. It is now thought certain that all the planets have become segregated from the gaseous mists which originally surrounded the sun, and this makes it probable

that planets lying so close together as the earth and Venus should have about the same chemical composition. And they do show almost the same specific gravity, the difference between them being only six per cent. Venus ought therefore to be giving off carbonic acid and water, just as does the earth; and the heavy clouds found in the atmosphere of Venus indicate that such is the case in regard to water at least. Now there are several astronomers who insist that Venus is forever turning the same side toward the sun, in the same way as her neighbor, Mercury. If this were true, Venus ought, through radiation, to assume the temperature of the interstellar spaces, which falls more than two hundred degrees below the freezing point. Under such conditions all gases except hydrogen and helium ought to be congealed into a mountainous protuberance on our side of the planet, and there would be no clouds in its atmosphere. The atmosphere ought also to be very thin and deflect the light very little, which is contrary to observed facts. So that when one astronomer, Bjelopolsky, declares that Venus revolves around its own axis once in about twenty-four hours, like the earth, and another, Lowell, concludes that Venus always turns the same side toward the sun, I must believe the former to be in the right.

Turning to our own planet, Professor Arrhenius reviews its history in the light of the latest discoveries and theories, before he goes on to speculate concerning its future. That a time must come when organic life dies out and the earth approaches the present conditions of the moon or Mercury, he takes for granted. In this connection it is interesting to note that he sees in human activity a fact making momentarily for an improvement of our terrestrial climate—an improvement which he thinks will become more and more noticeable while we continue to burn coal and thus to feed the atmosphere with carbonic acid in large quantities. But this cannot stave off the end forever. Here he remarks:

We cannot prevent the earth from gradually cooling and contracting. At last our entire supply of coal will be used up, as will the earth's store of peat and petroleum. The percentage of carbonic acid in the atmosphere will decrease. Thus the temperature will become lowered. Greater and greater quantities of carbonic acid and water will become tied up in products of corrosion. First of all there will come a carbonic-acid famine through which vegetation will be reduced and finally annihilated. Then will come a water famine, too. The oceans will shrink together, and the continents will be turned into deserts. On the surfaces of the

latter will be deposited meteorites and cosmic dust containing iron, and this iron will become oxidized under the influence of the atmosphere. Then the desert sands will show red as they do now on Mars. What remains of water will be collected in the deep cracks of the earth's surface, where it will form little lakes that easily dry up. Finally this water will become deposited at that pole which is forever buried in the wintry night.

In summing up his views on this subject, Professor Arrhenius says that every planet is capable of supporting living organisms during only a certain period of its development. This period is characterized by the presence of a solid surface, probably in part covered by oceans; by the presence of an atmosphere containing oxygen, carbonic acid and water; and by a temperature ranging from 0° to 55° Celsius. He finds that only two planets, Venus and the earth, display such conditions, although neither planet shows them over its entire surface. Mars still has

an atmosphere, but its temperature is too low to permit the existence of organic life. Mercury, which resembles the moon very much, lacks an atmosphere, as do the minor planets. The same thing is probably true of most of the lunar bodies surrounding the other planets. Jupiter and the large planets lying beyond it have probably not become sufficiently cooled to develop a solid surface, and thus they cannot yet offer a habitat to organic beings. It is probable that planets circle about other suns, and that some of these exhibit conditions favorable to life, but they are too far away from us to permit any definite knowledge concerning them. "One cannot fail," says Professor Arrhenius in the conclusion of his very interesting article, "to be struck by the fact that such a very small portion of the material substance contained in our solar system serves as a foundation for organic existence."

IS LAZINESS A DISEASE?

THERE is at least consolation, if not hope, for the sinful wight whose friends are accustomed to fling the reproach at him that he was "born tired." For that, according to Theodule Ribot, of the Institut de France, who writes in the *Revue Philosophique* (Paris), is precisely what is the matter with the majority of seemingly able-bodied individuals who are accused by the world of being lazy. Indolence, indifference and kindred vices of apathy, M. Ribot, who is a medical scientist as well as a speculative philosopher, does not hesitate to refer, in most cases, to a certain deficiency of quality in the blood and general somatic make-up that makes prohibitive any continued energy or concentration. He says:

Moralists have written much of the vice of laziness, but simply as an evil that hurts society. They neglect to consider basic causes of such a quality or defect, and attribute it simply to a lack of will-power that education is competent to deal with and re-create. The psychologist, on the contrary, has sought for the sources of the disease, and he has found that congenital laziness—that which is obviously not wilful—has an organic and a mental origin. A scientifically complete examination of a series of so-called idlers has discovered that there was a lack of tonicity in the whole system, that the heart-beats were weak, that arterial pressure was low, and that the circulation was generally of the slackest. A consequence of this is that the brain showed not so much an indisposition, as a real incapacity for concentrating attention, and soon, owing to the fact that its nourishment was at the vanishing-point, became exhausted. The truth of these findings is pointed, moreover, by the fact that even persons of great mental and physical

energy are given to indulgence in spells of idleness which they themselves are unable to explain, since their inclination does not tend toward waste of time. At such periods, they will find that the circulation of the blood has dropped from its normal activity, or else that, owing to indigestion or sluggish liver, certain areas of the brain and body are not being supplied with the normal quantity of blood.

M. Ribot finds that there exists a certain analogy between the inertia of the so-called lazy man and that of the aged individual. Laziness, he says, is a kind of anticipated old age. The general characteristic of old age is atrophy of the superior elements, muscular and nervous tissue, with a corresponding development of inferior (flabby) tissue. The influx and afflux of blood are reduced; there is a positive decay of nerve-tissue and muscle. As a result of these physical changes all over the body, psychic (or mind) changes necessarily follow—weakening memory, routinary custom, disinclination to new ideas, submissiveness of a perfunctory order. Alone the spirit of egotism and the religious sentiment remain active and tenacious. Says M. Ribot:

The real man is very far from the ideal man whom we may suppose to be endowed with self-regenerating forces which he can call upon as he requires them. The common man cannot, at will, regenerate the energies he has just expended. These energies enter into his system under two forms: the one, internal—such as foods; the other, external—such as sensorial excitations. His organism cannot (of his own will) transform the quantity

of energy received into an equal quantity of freed energy; for in the normal man, efficient or workable energies circulate in the body, are gradually placed in reserve in the tissues, and constitute the greatest part of his organic or working energies. In its working the whole somatic and cerebral mechanism operates according to the native or acquired character of the individual; it is worth just what it is worth. A Gladstone or a Thiers can work un-

ceasingly for sixty years at hard political work; a Darwin could only work two hours daily far from the noise of cities. . . . As impulsive forces, interest in work and the cultivation by slow and graduated processes, to counteract predisposition to laziness, may be suggested. But the love of work and activity is an acquired tendency rather than a natural one, for the human tendency is toward the line of least resistance.

THE PERSISTENCE OF SOCIAL FORCES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

SPEAKING of our relations with the Far East, the writer of another article noticed in this REVIEW (page 238) alludes to the "new United States." Expression to a similar view is given by Prof. Frederick J. Turner in his annual address as president of the American Historical Association, printed in the *American Historical Review*. "The transformations," he says, "through which the United States is passing in our own day are so profound, so far-reaching, that it is hardly an exaggeration to say that we are witnessing the birth of a new nation in America." Professor Turner refers to the revolution during the past two decades in the social and economic structure of this country, the changes in which "have been long in preparation and are, in part, the result of world-wide forces of reorganization incident to the age of steam production and large-scale industry, and, in part, the result of the closing of the period of the colonization of the West." The frontier line, which for decade after decade was depicted on the census maps, can no longer be described. The pioneer era has passed. Two ideals developed in this era; one was the ideal of individual freedom to compete unrestrictedly for the resources of a continent—the squatter ideal; the other was the ideal of a democracy—"government of the people, by the people and for the people."

The operation of these ideals took place contemporaneously with the passing into private possession of the free public domain and the natural resources of the United States. But American democracy was based on free lands; these were the very conditions that shaped its growth and its fundamental traits. Thus time has revealed that these two ideals of pioneer democracy had elements of mutual hostility and contained the seeds of its dissolution. The present finds itself engaged in the task of readjusting its old ideals to new conditions and is turning increasingly to government to safeguard its traditional democracy. It is not surprising that socialism shows noteworthy gains as elections continue; that parties are forming on new lines; that the demand for primary elections, for popular choice of senators, initiative, referendum,

and recall is spreading, and that the regions once the center of pioneer democracy exhibit these tendencies in a most marked degree. They are efforts to find substitutes for that former safeguard or democracy, the disappearing free lands. They are the sequence to the extinction of the frontier.

After tracing the marvelous development of our natural resources, the advances in our commercial fields, the colossal growth of our railroads, Professor Turner observes that in all this national energy, and contemporaneous with the tendency to turn to the national Government for protection to democracy, there is clear evidence of the persistence and the development of sectionalism. "Whether," he says, "we observe the grouping of votes in Congress and in general elections, or the organization and utterances of business leaders, or the association of scholars, churches, or other representative of the things of the spirit, we find that American life is not only increasing in its national intensity, but that it is integrating by sections." Much of Congressional legislation to-day is determined by "the contests, triumphs, or compromises between the rival sections." In the field of labor Professor Turner sees "in the utterances of so-called labor visionaries like Evans and Jacques, Byrdsall and Leggett, finger-points to the currents that now make the main channel of our history. In them are to be found some of the important planks of the platforms of the triumphant parties of our own day." As has been shown by Professor Commons, there arose between 1830 and 1850 an idealistic but widespread and influential humanitarian movement, strikingly similar to that of the present, dealing with forces in American life, animated by a desire to apply the public lands to social amelioration. The slavery struggle absorbed all these projects for the time; and after the war other influences delayed the revival of the humanitarian movement. Only in our own day has this humanitarian democratic wave reached the level of those earlier years. But in the

meantime there are clear evidences, says Professor Turner, of the persistence of the forces, even though under strange guise. To quote him further:

Read the platforms of the Greenback-Labor, the Granger, and the Populist parties, and you will find in those platforms, discredited and reprobated by the major parties of the time, the basic proposals of the Democratic party after its revolution under the leadership of Mr. Bryan, and of the Republican party after its revolution by Mr. Roosevelt. The Insurgent movement is so clearly related to the areas and elements that gave strength to this progressive assertion of old democratic ideals with new weapons, that it must be regarded as the organized refusal of these persistent tendencies to be checked by the advocates of more moderate measures.

Even American agriculture, viewed in rela-

tion to the economic, political, and social life of the nation, yields similar results for the historian. In the overproduction of wheat in rapidly colonized provinces, as in the overproduction of silver in the mountain provinces which were contemporaneously exploited, are to be found "important explanations of the peculiar form which American politics took in the period when Mr. Bryan mastered the Democratic party," just as in the opening of the new gold-fields in the years immediately following, and in the passing of the era of almost free virgin wheat soil will be found explanations of the more recent period when high prices are giving new energy and aggressiveness to the demands of American democracy.

WHY TOLSTOY LEFT HIS HOME

A VERY graphic account of the circumstances which resulted in the late Count Tolstoy's voluntary exile from his home, only a few days before his death, was published in a recent issue of the *London Times*. It was written by P. A. Boulanger, an intimate friend of Tolstoy, who was present when he died.

To those near Tolstoy, says M. Boulanger, his departure from Yásnaya Polyána did not come as a surprise.

During the last thirty years of his life he suffered acutely from the contradictions amid which he lived; for he regarded property, wealth, and the sale of his writings as evils, yet felt constrained to go on living in a good house on his ancestral estate, having dinner served by a footman, while most of his books were published and sold by his wife, who obtained a considerable income from them, and ostentatiously surrounded him with comforts. Though he had renounced his property and divided it among his heirs nearly twenty years ago, and had then made over to his wife, for her life, the income derived from the sale of his copyrighted works published before 1880, yet while he resided with his family he had to live somewhat as they did, and this apparent contradiction between the external conditions of his life and the principles he held often evoked the blame—not only of people hostile to Tolstoy, but also of some of his most ardent followers, who wished him to set an example to the world; but for a long time no one understood the true reason of his inconsistency.

ESTRANGEMENT FROM HIS FAMILY

So opposed was he to the views held by his wife, and so bitterly hostile was she to his

ideas, that, says the writer already quoted from:

he was always hoping that the Russian Government, which persecuted his adherents (imprisoning them and exiling them to Siberia), would some day imprison or exile him, and thus remove him from conditions of life that violated his conscience.

Of recent years the Countess became "more and more careful of her property."

When her copyright in some of his earlier writings was infringed she did not hesitate to take legal proceedings against the pirate publishers, and sought her husband's support in the matter; which action, clashing as it did with his rooted disapproval of all legal proceedings, caused him much suffering. All his remonstrances and attempts to pacify her without letting her have her way irritated her, and she, on her side, reproached him and made play with his inconsistencies. On the estate she employed watchmen, who sometimes came into conflict with the peasants; and Tolstoy's advice, to leave the property unguarded, vexed her still more. Tolstoy's position at home became harder and harder day by day. The Countess used to read his diary to discover his private plans and thoughts. It was the same with his will, made in July this year. Try as he would to hide from her that he was making it, rumors of it reached her, and depressing scenes occurred in consequence. More than once I witnessed depressing scenes between the Countess and her husband, and was always surprised to see how mildly Tolstoy behaved, and with what attention and love he treated his wife after her insults; and I saw that this attention and love were not in the least artificial or external, but came from a pure heart and deep feeling.

Thus vividly does M. Boulanger describe the last few months of the great Russian's life at home:

He had no privacy even at night, for from his bedroom he could hear the rustle of the Countess's dress as she looked through his papers in the next room—his study. During the summer of this year he began to think that he would have to leave Yásnaya Polyána and go somewhere into retirement, and he warned his youngest daughter to have a passport always ready in case of a sudden departure. On the night of Nov. 9, when Tolstoy was in bed and had put out the light, the Countess, believing him to be asleep, entered his study and began to search among his papers. Tolstoy heard this, and feelings of indignation and revolt rose in him with such strength that he could not subdue them. He counted his pulse, which was beating very quickly and irregularly, and suddenly he felt that it was useless to remain in his old home any longer. He had to go away and realize his long-cherished dream of living a solitary and humble life. When the rustle in the study ceased, and Tolstoy had assured himself that the Countess was asleep in her bedroom, he rose, collected his papers, and went to tell his friend Dr. Makovitsky that he had decided to leave the house at once. It was three o'clock in the morning. After closing the door into the next room, that the Countess might not hear his preparations, he packed his papers and the necessary clothing. He took only two changes of underclothing, evidently considering that quite enough for his future life. Then he went to awake his youngest daughter, and bade her good-bye.

All the way to the station, the aged philosopher was "much agitated,

fearing that the Countess might awake and overtake him, and that one of those scenes would ensue from which his nerves were already suffering.

They had long to wait at the station, and in the gray twilight of the wintry dawn Tolstoy walked briskly up and down the path outside. His coachman, waiting near, was surprised to see how brisk and firm were Tolstoy's movements. "Has your Excellency no message to send home?" he asked.

Tolstoy paused awhile in thought, and then, with a resolute shake of the head, said, "No, nothing. Go back home."

His Farewell Letter, Written Thirteen Years Ago

According to a letter published last month in the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, and

translated for the *Times*, the plan for exile was made by Tolstoy thirteen years ago. This letter, which the Count asked be handed to his wife after his death, was as follows—omitting a few details as to bequests:

DEAR SONIA,—Long have I been tormented by the discord between my life and my beliefs. To compel you all to change your life, the habits to which I myself had accustomed you, I could not; and to leave you ere this I also could not, believing that I would deprive the children while they were little of that small influence which I could have over them, and would grieve you; on the other hand, to continue to live as I have lived these sixteen years struggling and irritating you or falling myself under those influences and temptations to which I had become accustomed and by which I am surrounded I also cannot, and I have now decided to do what I have long wished to do: go away, because, first, for me, in my advancing years, this life becomes more and more burdensome and I long more and more for solitude; and, secondly, because the children have grown up, my influence is not needed, and you all have livelier interests which will render my absence little noticeable.

The chief thing is that just as the Hindus nearing 60 retire into the woods, and as old religious men seek to devote their last years to God and not to jokes, puns, gossip, or tennis, so for me, entering my 70th year, the all soul-absorbing desire is for tranquillity, for solitude, and, if not for entire harmony, at least not for crying discord between my life and my beliefs and conscience.

If I did this openly, there would be entreaties, pleadings, criticisms, quarrels, and I might weaken perhaps and not fulfil my decision—yet it must be fulfilled. And so, pray forgive me if my act causes you pain, and, above all, in your soul, Sonia, leave me free to go and do not repine or condemn me.

That I should have gone away from you does not mean that I am displeased with you. I know that you could not—literally could not—and cannot see and feel as I do, and therefore could not and cannot change your life and sacrifice yourself for something which you do not recognize. And therefore I do not blame you, but on the contrary recall with love and gratitude the long 35 years of our life, especially the first half of this period, when you, with the maternal devotion of your nature, so firmly and energetically bore that which you considered to be your duty.

Good-bye, dear Sonia,

Your loving LEO TOLSTOY.



INVESTORS' PROTECTION

WITH OTHER NEWS OF BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Homes on Instalments

NOT long ago a mechanic bought three lots on the instalment plan, near New York City. He felt safe enough. The president of the suburban real estate company that sold him the lots was a man widely known in business circles.

The mechanic paid up all his instalments. He got what the real estate folks called a warrantee deed. The next thing was to build a house. He applied to a coöperative savings and loan society for a loan of \$2600. The society was perfectly willing to help him; it would have paid the money in instalments as the house became completed, section by section. But when its lawyer examined the mechanic's title to the lot, he discovered that the warrantee deed was worthless. The real estate company itself had not possessed a clear title.

This particular case, one is glad to record, turned out happily. Pressure was brought upon the officers of the real estate concern by the building and loan people. The mechanic's title was cleared up.

But last month a couple of hundred working folks were less fortunate. They had bought lots on the instalment plan from a real estate company with a high-sounding appellation—which was suddenly discovered to have heavily mortgaged the very lots it was undertaking to sell.

As a building and loan association lawyer stated for this department, "This sort of thing happens every so often." Working people sign contracts to buy lots on instalments, without realizing the intent of the phraseology, which by no means gives any responsible guarantee that even after the instalments are paid a clear title will be forthcoming. Safety may be felt, of course, when buying from real estate dealers whose experience and responsibility has been long and high.

"Neighborhood" Lenders

MORE than two million people are members of local or "neighborhood" building and loan associations in the United States.

There are more than 5700 of these bodies. They own more than eight hundred and fifty million dollars.

The corner stone of home owning on instalments is the building and loan association that is truly a "neighborhood" affair—one whose officers lend money only on properties that they have personally inspected and to borrowers personally known to themselves.

In Charlotte, N. C., there is an association with a large membership among the colored people. One proprietor of a barber shop has acquired a competence of \$30,000, systematically saved through his association. Of course a great deal of this has come to him in the form of interest. And the way this interest has been earned is largely through the aid his money has furnished other members of his own race, who in turn have made sacrifices in order to own their own homes.

The president of this particular association became so impressed by the double beneficence of its work that, as soon as he had saved a modest competence, he retired from business. Now he devotes practically all his time to the extension of his association and others. He receives no pay for his work. He defrays his own expenses. He gets more satisfaction out of life than most people get, when he points to the \$11,000,000 of members' money that his institution has handled without the loss of a cent; and to the minuteness of its annual expenses—only $\frac{3}{8}$ of 1 per cent. of its assets.

Pennsylvania, Ohio and New Jersey are the three largest building and loan States, in point of assets and membership. The citizens of the twenty-odd States where there are few or no true "neighborhood" associations can obtain valuable information through the bank commissioners of such States as the "big three" and New York, which has just passed a model law.

The profit to commuters of well-run associations can be learned from the study of work done in New Jersey towns like Rutherford, Bloomfield and Hackensack. Nearly one-half of the 178,000 total building and loan membership of the State live in the commuting zone of New York City.

The emphasis on all "neighborhood" asso-

ciation work is its close relationship to the average citizen. For instance, the largest body in New York State, the "Homestead Aid" of Utica, has assets of nearly \$2,600,000; yet its mortgages average only \$1662 apiece. During its quarter-century of activity, no less than 3500 people who have borrowed from it are now home owners.

Bank Directors and the Public

PERHAPS recent newspaper headlines on "responsibility of bank directors" seemed a little technical to most readers. What difference did it make if a few millionaires were obliged to pay heavily for neglect of duty? But the welfare of a large proportion of American citizens rests directly upon these very men. There are 25,000 banks in the country. The figures obtainable for only 18,245 show a total of 25,645,604 depositors. Many of these accounts stand in the names of those who are heads of families with others dependent upon them. Then there are the stockholders, who are by no means all millionaires. In 1904, the national banks alone had 318,735 stockholders, of whom 104,534 were women. Since the national banks constitute only about one-third of all the banks, there are probably one million bank stockholders in the United States. All are interested, whether they know it or not, in the question of wildcat banking becoming possible by the neglect of "dummy directors."

It was only a coincidence that the failure of two banking institutions in New York City last month was followed, hardly more than a week later, by the final settling-up of a bank whose failure in the panic of 1907 was caused by the same unwise and reckless methods. But there is something more than coincidence, a sort of family resemblance, in fact, between the crash of last month and the downfall of the National Bank of North America in 1907. In the first place, there was that which the newspapers seize so eagerly upon, human interest. No normal person could fail to find romance in the story of Charles W. Morse, the former "ice-king," whose financial structure tumbled like a house of cards four years ago. Joseph G. Robin, the center of last month's sensation in the banking world, commanded like interest because of his humble origin, rapid rise, and the dramatic and sensational incidents accompanying the failure of his banks: his attempted suicide, the devotion to his cause of his sister, and his refusal to recognize the old couple believed to be his parents.

The analogy, however, between the methods of Charles W. Morse on the one hand and of Robin and the Carnegie Trust officials on the other, goes further than the merely picturesque. In both cases, there was speculation with bank funds for the benefit of the managers. There was also "kiting," a term which bank examiners employ to describe the process of indefinitely paying off old debts by creating new ones. Finally, there was in each case the usual story of directors with no understanding of the inside workings.

Presumably directors of a bank ought to be able to detect unsound methods. There were several eminent gentlemen on the directorates of the three institutions named. There may be no intention of establishing any criminal intent in those directions. But their too implicit faith in a single officer had quite the same result as if all of their directors had been in a conspiracy to defraud both the stockholders and the depositors.

There will be fewer of these dummy directors in the future—fewer directors who do not direct. For when it was announced last month that the affairs of the National Bank of North America had been settled after three years' work, it developed that a handful of gentlemen prominent in the community had been forced to put up \$240,000 for the doubtful honor of once having been directors. The receiver of the bank had brought suit against them for a much larger sum, but rather than stand trial they made a settlement, thus assuming liability for losses sustained in the bank's speculations. These directors have always denied any knowledge of irregularities. Their quickness to pay up can only be taken as evidence that while delinquent directors may escape criminal prosecution, they are likely to pay dearly for their complaisance in allowing others to do what they are supposed to do themselves.

Not only in New York is the job of dummy director becoming an expensive and doubtful honor. In Chicago the shareholders of the defunct John R. Walsh's banks have just brought a suit for \$3,000,000 against one of the former directors, a man of business prominence, for neglect of duty.

And here is a news item printed the 17th of last month—just as this issue of the magazine went to press:

Madison, Wis.—Suit has been started in the Federal Court for \$700,000 against the officers and directors of the defunct First National Bank of Mineral Point as individuals, because of the alleged carelessness in allowing its cashier, Phillip Allen, Jr., now in the Federal prison, to loot the institution of more than half a million dollars.

A Government Protectorate for Investors?

A SUBSCRIBER to this magazine wrote not long since to the financial editor with reference to the stock of a certain company engaged in the promotion of a new invention. He had this to say: "I understand that the machine is now in use in some of the departments of the National Government at Washington. If this is true, doesn't it amount practically to a Government guarantee of the proposition?"

Of course, the notion is erroneous. There are a good many circumstances under which the Government might actually be using a newly invented device, as, for instance, merely for experimental purposes, without any intention of conveying the impression that it believed such device to be commercially practicable—something upon which a great industry might be built. Yet it is only a modified form of a notion which has been found to be surprisingly common among investors.

We refer to it here because it involves one of the dangers upon which strong emphasis was laid by all of the witnesses before the so-called "Hadley Commission," appointed by President Taft to investigate the issuance of railroad stocks and bonds, at the hearings in New York, the latest held before this issue of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* went to press. It was only expressing the same idea in another way, when one of these witnesses argued that in whatever attempt might be made by the federal Government to establish a system of regulation for the issuance of railroad securities, there would be "the danger of creating the impression that approval of securities by any commission makes them good."

Another witness declared that it would be a large undertaking for the Government to establish a protectorate over the investing public—that, even if it were attempted, he did not think it advisable to commence with the least of the evils. He added: "The market is flooded with millions of mining and other stocks, which are bought freely by people who are easily humbugged. No one has suggested, so far as I know, any Governmental effort to prohibit or regulate this speculation. Swindling through the issue or sale of railroad securities is absolutely insignificant in volume with what is done in other corporate securities."

With few exceptions, however, those who made the most important contributions to the great mass of evidence which is being

collected by President Taft's commission, were of the opinion that, aside from this danger, some kind of supervision by the Government might be found to be desirable. Only a few were inclined to doubt even the constitutionality of such supervision. It was interesting to find the most outspoken on this point in the person of Francis Lynde Stetson, legal representative of the vast interests in railroads, steamships and industrial enterprises commonly referred to as "Morgan."

Those who inclined to the affirmative view of the desirability of federal regulation included Robert S. Lovett, successor to the mighty Harriman as president of the Union and Southern Pacific railway systems; Walker D. Hines, general counsel and chairman of the board of directors of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé; Robert Mather, former president of the Rock Island Company—the man who was chosen to pilot the big Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company out of the sea of financial difficulties into which it had drifted during the 1907 panic, and who still directs its destinies; Jacob H. Schiff, head of Kuhn, Loeb & Company, one of the most powerful international banking houses in the world; Paul D. Cravath, corporation lawyer, who will be remembered by many particularly for his assistance in the able defense before the Interstate Commerce Commission a few years ago of the now famous "Alton transaction" of Harriman and his associates; and W. M. Acworth, of London, Parliamentary barrister at law and foremost authority on English railways.

On the Defensive

A REPRESENTATIVE of this magazine listened to the testimony before the "Hadley" Commission, of directors, bankers, and lawyers, all representative, in one way or another, of big corporate interests. And to him the significance underlying it all was the unmistakable indication that these men had, on the question of regulation, at last placed themselves on the defensive.

Here, for instance, is a sentence from the testimony of Mr. Hines of the Atchison: "It is manifest that the public is going to insist upon regulation; it is manifest that State regulation is inadequate, and it follows that federal regulation ultimately, and preferably at the outset, should be exclusive." And from Mr. Cravath's testimony, "Whether or not it is economically wise, federal regulation has come to stay." The implication was clear that centralized regulation was preferred to

regulation in accordance with the varied opinions of forty-eight different State legislatures.

How far, then, shall the Government go in the matter under inquiry? One must grant that much regulation might easily increase the difficulty that so many investors already have of distinguishing between Government approval and Government guarantee; and might also, by making too inflexible the terms of the sale of stocks and bonds, act as a blight upon independent enterprise in the building of the new lines that the country so sorely needs.

Then what can be done to diminish whatever present danger there may be in the improvident or improper issue of railroad securities? Questions like these were asked by the Commission. The answers which seemed—if one might be presuming enough to attempt a judgment so far in advance of an official report making recommendations to Congress—to bring the most satisfaction to the inquirers themselves, were of this nature:

"Establish uniformity by a code of simple laws, based upon broad, fundamental principles." "Through an extension of the requirements of publicity, place the responsibility where it is to-day, namely, upon the boards of directors and the bankers, letting them bear the consequences of their acts." "Let the railroads deal with their credit as best they may, merely insisting that for new issues of stocks and bonds a fair consideration be received."

Incidentally, as might have been expected, such questions arose as the relationship between capitalization and the rates which the public pays for the services rendered by the railroads, and the advisability of physical valuation of railroad properties as a basis for their capitalization. The disposition was to dismiss the former as worthy of little or no consideration. Rates, insist the railroad men, are fixed in accordance with "what the traffic can afford"; they are the products of many factors. The latter was held to be more or less irrelevant.

The evidence which President Hadley and his colleagues heard is a strange mixture of theory and applied economics. Their most difficult task will be to knead it all into working shape for Congress, in the heat of debate, to turn into wholesome laws.

Steel and Cotton Break Records

STEEL happens to have been "Prince" during 1910, at least so far as the nation's exports were concerned. Thanks to it and to "King Cotton," Europe's debt to Amer-

ica, as indicated by the balance of trade, was larger at the end of the year than had been thought possible.

Figures just announced show the value of iron and steel exports during the calendar year to have been \$200,000,000. The largest exportation prior to 1910 was \$197,000,000 in 1907. Moreover, iron and steel manufactures are found to form nearly one-fourth of the total value of manufactures exported, which in 1910 was about \$830,000,000.

Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor also show the value of raw cotton exports to have been \$530,000,000. This record exceeds by more than \$60,000,000 the previous best year in the history of the trade. The quantity exported, however, was materially less than in certain earlier years, having been but 3,641,000,000 pounds, compared, for example, with 4,374,000,000 pounds in 1908, when the value was but \$439,000,000.

Here are the official figures of imports and exports for the full year:

Merchandise imported	\$1,562,807,662
Domestic and foreign merchandise exported	1,864,411,270
Excess of exports over imports	\$301,603,608

Reference has previously been made in these columns to the fact that this "visible" balance of trade, during twenty years past, has averaged \$476,000,000 in favor of America. It is seen that in 1910 it was much below that average. Without the unexpectedly good showing in steel and cotton, America would have cut but a sorry figure internationally.

Panama Bonds

CONVICTION is growing that, sometime during the year, the real investment value of United States bonds will be put to a test.

Congress has just had submitted for its consideration a bill, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to insert in the new Panama bonds a provision "that such bonds shall not be receivable by the Treasurer of the United States as security for the issue of circulating notes to national banks . . . provided that the authority . . . shall cease, when bonds to the value of \$100,000,000 shall have been issued." It is pretty generally believed that the measure will become a law, and that the new bonds will bear interest at the rate of three per cent.

No less an authority on United States securities than the National City Bank of

New York declares that "the time has arrived when the United States must seek a market for its bonds on an investment basis, uncomplicated by such artificial considerations as are involved in the availability of bonds as a basis of national bank circulation."

The outcome of the experiment will be awaited with great interest. There is, however, little doubt that, despite the growing disposition on the part of individual investors to demand a high-rate of income, the bonds will be readily absorbed through competitive bidding. There are more investors than is commonly imagined to whom the factor of "safety" still appeals more strongly than that of substantial return.

Why Some Investors Hesitate

"I HAD about made up my mind to use a few thousand dollars of idle funds in the purchase of bonds," wrote a subscriber, recently, "but a friend tells me that we are in for some bad times, and advises me to keep the money in the bank. What do you think about it?"

This particular "friend" is not alone in his apparent alarm over the outlook for the year. The writer personally knows of a good many others who have become disturbed by reading the pessimistic views of the railroad men, and by the frequent use of the word "depression" by chroniclers of the industrial news. They have seen the recent bank failures in New York described as "an incipient panic," and quite naturally, perhaps, they have associated all these things with the unfortunate events of the panic of 1907.

It would make a long story, if one were to attempt to tell wherein the present situation differs from that which culminated in the breakdown of three and a half years ago. Suffice it to say, however, that, aside from one or two mere incidents, the two are not analogous at all. In the opinion of those who study conditions most closely, and who have proven their ability to interpret them most accurately, it is going far enough to say that business and industry are simply "slowing down."

It is proverbially true that in times like these those who traffic in investment securities find their persuasive powers mightily taxed to induce certain of their clients (among whom we may imagine the person quoted above) to take advantage of really attractive opportunities. They find themselves confronted with that peculiar phase of investment psychology, exemplified in the disposi-

tion of so many individual purchasers to turn their attention to the investment markets only when business and industry are "booming," when confidence is contagious, and when the price level is consequently high.

There is logic in the bankers' argument that it is before the "slowing down" process has reached a point where large sums of money are freed from the channels of commerce and trade, and before these sums seek investment in securities, that the real "opportunities" are found.

The Demand for Bonds

INVESTMENT bankers, who joined with so much enthusiasm in the campaign against extravagance, supplementing President Taft's efforts to check the dissipation of the resources of the nation by preaching the doctrine of individual saving, profess themselves well satisfied with the number of avowed "converts" thus far.

Naturally, the "salvation," which the bankers held out was the purchase of high grade stocks and bonds, and it is gratifying to note the extent to which the public has availed itself of it. The demand for the best issues has been increasing of late, and, what is more, it hasn't been coming from the big banks and insurance companies. In other words, the tide, which, as pointed out in these columns last month, was against the investment markets, appears to have set in the other direction.

Superficially, perhaps, there is some reason for a continued display of timidity on the part of investors, particularly those who in times past have leaned more strongly toward railroad bonds. Officials of many of the great transportation systems have been saying that it would not surprise them if 1911 were to be another year of declining "gross" earnings. We have, however, had it suggested to us by some of the closest students of the railroad situation that the outlook is not so bad as these officials try to make it out. We have previously observed that, in view of certain controversies with the Interstate Commerce Commission, the average railroad man has been disposed to put his worst foot forward.

At the time of writing these remarks, there had been comparatively little change in the average price of representative bonds, but it must inevitably come as the new and larger demand absorbs the old supply. The "bargains" tend gradually, but surely, to disappear from the counters.

JULIA WARD HOWE AS A WRITER

BY JEANNE ROBERT

MRS. JULIA WARD HOWE'S posthumous volume of verse, "At Sunset," will endure the test of true poetry—that it must stir the imagination and speak to the heart. It seems quite fitting that we should incidentally call to mind, along with some comment on this volume, the major incidents of the life and career of this distinguished woman of letters, philanthropist and reformer. Mrs. Howe's life was an outpouring of the passion that ever remains an attribute of the good and the great—the passion for "carrying, from one end of society to the other, the best knowledge, the best ideas of their time." Her husband, Dr. S. G. Howe, superintendent of the Perkins Institute for the Blind at Boston, was for many years her able coadjutor in her many literary and philanthropical activities. He interested his wife in the Greeks and the cause of anti-slavery, and for some time they edited an anti-slavery paper. Their sympathies drew them into a friendship with John Brown, whom they abetted and aided until his death.

Mrs. Howe became a contributor to many periodicals, writing many lyrics and two plays. Previous to this last collection of verse she had issued two volumes of poems, "Passion Flowers" and "Words for the Hour." Of the two plays, the most pretentious, "Hyppolytus," written for Edwin Booth, was never brought out—much to Mrs. Howe's disappointment. The "World's Work" was produced at Wallack's in 1855, but was not a decided success.

Mrs. Howe's permanent contribution to literature will in all probability be only a few lyrics, of which the popular "Battle Hymn of the Republic" is the most noteworthy. These fervid lines, sung to the tune of "John Brown's Body," were written in the spring of 1861, while Mrs. Howe was visiting the scenes of war in the outskirts of Washington. They were first set down on the back of some loose sheets of paper inscribed with the stamp of that patriotic body of men and women, the United States Sanitary Commission. The *Atlantic Monthly* published the poem and it circulated rapidly throughout the country, in camp, in hospital, in

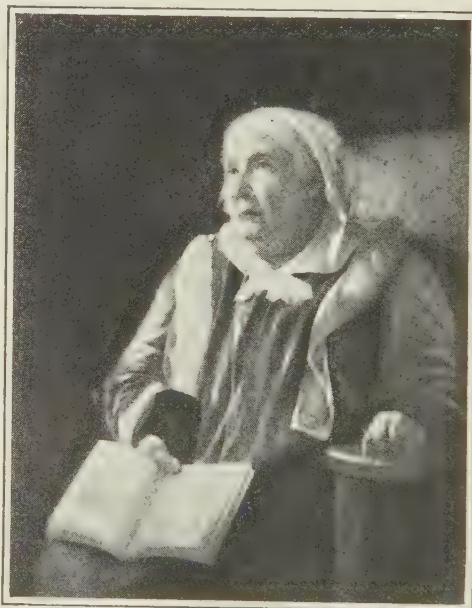
prison—wherever men listened to the call of freedom. The popularity of the "Battle Hymn" has only been paralleled by that of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin." It is our "Marseillaise." It sank like a diver into the hearts of men to bring forth the pearl of absolute heroism—the heroism which is the essence of the old Celtic spirit that goes to death with smiling eyes and a song upon the lips. "The 'Battle Hymn' brings before our memory," said Governor Guild, at Mrs. Howe's memorial service, "Cushing in his battery at Gettysburg; Bartlett strapped in his saddle leading forlorn hopes; the torn and wounded remnants of the First Minnesota, with 80 per cent. of their comrades dead on the field of battle and three captured battle flags in their hands; Winslow sweeping

the pirates from the sea in the face of a hostile Europe; the agonizing skeletons of Andersonville; Shaw at the head of his black regiment at Wagner; the Bloody Angle at Spottsylvania, and the moving drama at Appomattox."

The opening line, "Mine eyes have seen a vision," is an utterance that gives one an understanding of the tremendous influence she exerted upon her times. She was inspired; her poems were prophetic up-leaping like flames from the altar of her soul to light the way to things eternal.

Mrs. Howe was an intimate of the most intellectual men and women of her time and a great attraction as a public speaker. As years passed the people of New England came to regard her as an institution—the "Grand Old Woman of America." She outlived most of her contemporaries. Of those who worked with her in the stirring days when a song

might awaken a nation, Col. Thomas Wentworth Higginson and Frank Sanborn alone survive. Julia Howe, her eldest daughter, died in 1886. Her living children are Henry Marion Howe, professor in Columbia University, Mrs. Florence Howe Hall, Mrs. Laura Richards, known as a writer, and Maud Howe Eliot.



MRS. JULIA WARD HOWE AS SHE APPEARED IN HER LAST YEARS

(From a portrait made by John Elliott and reproduced as the frontispiece of "At Sunset," a posthumous volume of verse)

¹At Sunset. By Mrs. Julia Ward Howe. Houghton Mifflin Company. 150 pp., por. \$1.25.

of spiritual kinship with humanity gave her courage for the independence of thought and action so manifest in her life. She believed, with Nietzsche, that "only the minority is capable of independence." Her last work was an effort to secure recognition for the daughter of Garibaldi and a plea before the Massachusetts legislature for pure food laws to save the lives of children. At the time of her death she was engaged in arranging the poems included in the volume "At Sunset." This collection embraces many poems written for public occasions, such as the Hudson-Fulton celebration, the Lincoln centennial, and the Peace Congress. There are also many personal tributes to friends like Whittier, Dr. Holmes, Phillips Brooks, James Freeman Clarke, and others. To analyze Mrs. Howe as a poet is difficult. She is at her best when she attempts least, namely, in her simple, spontaneous lyrics. There is a feeling of a loss of power in her longer poems, where spontaneity is sacrificed to content. For pure, lyrical beauty there is nothing that surpasses the lovely lines "Looking down on the White Heads of My Contemporaries."

"Beneath what mound of snow
Are hid my springtime roses?
How shall remembrance know
Where buried hope reposes?"

In what forgetful heart,
As in a canon darning,
Slumbers the blissful art
That set my heaven sparkling?

What sense shall never know,
Soul shall remember;
Roses beneath the snow,
June in November."

Another lyric breathing the mother spirit that so eloquently characterized Mrs. Howe, beginning "I have tended six pretty cradles," is of exceptional sweetness. The frontispiece, a photogravure portrait of Mrs. Howe made by her son-in-law John Elliott, brings her gracious presence near, almost to the degree of actual tangibility. The eyes are serene, the expression kindly. One imagines she must have looked like this portrait at breakfast table in her own home. It is proposed to hang a life-sized portrait of Mrs. Howe in Faneuil Hall and also to erect a bust in the Boston Public Library. It is right that she should be venerated; for she was in the truest sense a liberator and a reformer; she pleaded for the rights of womanhood with audacity and eloquence. In a century of marvelous achievement she was eminently useful; she stands for the noblest womanhood and the highest standard of citizenship.

THE NEW BOOKS

AMERICAN EDUCATION

TO spend a week in residence at each of fourteen leading American universities may not give the ideal preparation for writing upon American university progress, but it is certainly preferable to the old way of compiling an account from university catalogues and like literature. Whether the method is a successful one or not depends very largely upon the person who makes use of it. In the case of Dr. Edwin E. Slosson, the author of "Great American Universities,"¹ the fourteen weeks thus employed proved to be time well spent. Dr. Slosson was enabled to write a more vital, impartial, and truthful account of what is going on to-day in our leading educational institutions than has appeared in a long time. Naturally the picture is not wholly flattering, and in certain academic circles there will doubtless be criticism of some of Dr. Slosson's statements as well as regret that now and then a family skeleton was exposed to public gaze. But on the whole the author has at least succeeded in telling in a very direct and forcible way what he saw, and by far the greater part of what he saw was distinctly creditable to the modern American university—which, by the way, is an institution that its own graduates of a quarter of a century ago would almost fail to recognize. Dr. Slosson's concluding chapter, "Comparisons and Conclusions," should be read with diligence by university presidents and trustees and all responsible for university administration.

President Charles F. Thwing's "History of Education in the United States Since the Civil War"² covers not only the field of college and university education but the other parts of our educational system as well. One chapter is devoted to the

teacher and teaching, another to the textbook, and one to great personalities. Dr. Thwing rightly regards the period of time that has elapsed since the close of the Civil War as transitional and formative in a peculiar sense. He has himself been an interested observer of the educational movement during nearly all of this period and has written much concerning it, particularly with reference to higher education.

Until quite recently very little has been known in this country about outdoor schools, although information concerning such schools in Germany and England has been for some time available in official reports. Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, of the department of child hygiene, Russell Sage Foundation, has taken the accounts of this European experience, together with that of the Providence and Boston schools and material from other sources, and has compiled a little book³ for the use of school superintendents, teachers, and others interested in educational work. The text is accompanied by a series of graphic and interesting illustrations.

In a little book entitled "Child Problems,"⁴ Dr. George B. Mangold, of the St. Louis School of Social Economy, writes about infant and child mortality and its causes, the recent aspects of educational reform, child labor, the delinquent child, and the dependent and neglected child. In this single volume Dr. Mangold has brought together a great deal of material that has heretofore had no popular presentation outside of the pages of financial reports and the proceedings of organizations. He has made an exceedingly useful compilation of important data bearing on these several subjects.

Books on what has been called the most intimate phase of self-education—that is to say, a proper

¹ Great American Universities. By Edwin E. Slosson. Macmillan. 528 pp., ill. \$2.50.

² Education in the United States Since the Civil War. By Charles F. Thwing. Houghton Mifflin Company. 348 pp. \$1.25.

³ Open-Air Schools. By Leonard P. Ayres. Doubleday, Page & Co. 171 pp., ill. \$1.20.

⁴ Child Problems. By George B. Mangold. Macmillan. 381 pp. \$1.25.

understanding of the sex question—come from the presses in increasing numbers. Among those of recent publication which are worthy of more than a mere reading should be mentioned: Dr. Francis H. MacCarthy's "Hygiene for Mother and Child" (Harper); Mrs. Burton Chance's "Mother and Daughter" (Century); Sir Oliver Lodge's "Parent and Child" (Funk & Wagnalls); Dr. Le Grand Kerr's "Care and Training of Children" (Funk & Wagnalls); Margaret Slattery's "The Girl in Her Teens" (*Sunday School Times*); and Dr. Edith B. Lowry's "Confidences—Talks with a Young Girl Concerning Herself" (Forbes & Co., Chicago).

SOCIOLOGY AND POLITICS

Whether the publishers have had in mind the fact that during the opening weeks of 1911 several thousand lawmakers would be engaged at their annual or biennial tasks, we have no means of knowing. But certain it is that the proportion of books in the present season's output devoted to topics of peculiar interest to legislators is remarkably large. Within the past few weeks there have been issued from the presses of some of our most important publishing houses at least a dozen works, each one of which deals with one or more of the most vital phases of problems that have presented themselves for solution either to our State legislatures or to the national Congress. One volume, indeed, is entirely given up to a study of the origin, history, and present tendencies of law-making by statute. The title of this work, "Popular Law-Making,"¹ by Frederic Jesup Stimson, might be taken in a narrow sense to refer to the modern workings of the initiative and referendum. This, however, is not at all the theme of the book, nor does the author seem to have had such usage of his phrase in mind. By "popular" law-making he means all legislation enacted by modern representative governments. He begins with the early English idea of law and its working-out and proceeds to treat of American legislation under the separate heads of property rights, regulation of rates and prices, trusts and monopolies, corporations, labor laws, military and mob law, political rights, personal and racial rights, marriage and divorce, criminal law and police, internal improvements, and the public domain. Very few students have ever attempted such an investigation of the entire field of American statute law, and in presenting the results of such an investigation Mr. Stimson is certainly a pioneer. From this work the legislator of any one of our American States may consider with profit what has been accomplished in any portion of this vast field by all of the States. The book affords a remarkable conspectus of American law-making.

A useful manual of the legal rules governing corporations has been written by John S. Sullivan, of the University of Pennsylvania.² This book is not only a convenient handbook of statistics, but combines with a clear statement of the practical rules of corporation law some discussion of the broader principles governing it. In order to explain and illuminate the text many illustrative cases have been inserted at proper points throughout the volume.

Strangely enough, there has been comparatively little consideration of the race question in this

country from the point of view of State and federal legislation. Mr. Gilbert Thomas Stephenson, of North Carolina, has made an examination of the constitutions, statutes, and judicial decisions of the United States and of the States and Territories, between 1865 and the present time, to find the laws that have made distinctions between persons on the basis of race.³ This is a matter of much interest, not only to the eleven States of the South but to every State in the Union which has legislated upon the race question in any of its manifold forms. The author has not confined himself to the legal documents but has endeavored to state the principles involved in a non-technical manner.

A subject of fresh and growing interest is the ever-increasing expenditure of our national Government. This was the subject of a series of eight lectures delivered last year at Columbia University on the George Blumenthal Foundation by Prof. Henry Jones Ford. These lectures have now been published in book form.⁴ They deal with the making of the national budget, the constitutional agencies of budget control, comparisons with other countries, the evolution of the American system, political conditions and tendencies, and the possibilities of improvement. The publication of this book is especially timely in view of the efforts that are being made by the Taft administration and by certain leaders in Congress to check the rise of governmental expenditures.

Municipal problems are dealt with in the concrete by Prof. Delos F. Wilcox in his little book entitled "Great Cities in America."⁵ Professor Wilcox confines his discussion to six cities only: Washington, New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Boston. While this method of treatment is experimental, former works of this character having discussed the government of cities by topics, we believe that the innovation will be welcomed by students of municipal affairs generally. By taking each city separately the author is able to make a more effective presentation of the actual facts which had formed the groundwork of any attempt at municipal reform. If this method of treatment should prove acceptable to the public it is suggested that at some future time the story may be extended to include Cleveland, Los Angeles, Detroit, Pittsburg, Denver, Milwaukee, and other cities of the second class.

Prof. Robert C. Brooks has an unpleasant subject in his book entitled "Corruption in American Politics and Life."⁶ Still, it is just this cold-blooded pathological method that is required as the basis for all effective reform movements. Dr. Brooks has spent many years in familiarizing himself with the facts of American corruption, and he is in a position to state these facts in a way that should make a strong appeal to those members of the community who have faith in publicity as the effective cure of most evils in our public life.

Another set of questions that demands serious consideration from our legislators is related to the education of industrial workers. Mr. Arthur D. Dean, chief of the division of trade-schools of the New York State Education Department, has

¹ *Race Distinctions in American Law*. By Gilbert T. Stephenson. Appletons. 388 pp. \$1.50.

² *Popular Law-Making*. By Frederic Jesup Stimson. Scribners. 390 pp. \$2.50.

³ *The Cost of Our National Government*. By Henry J. Ford. Macmillan. 147 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ *Great Cities in America*. By Delos F. Wilcox. Macmillan. 426 pp. \$1.25.

⁵ *Corruption in American Politics and Life*. By Robert C. Brooks. Dodd, Mead & Co. 309 pp. \$1.25.

written a little book on "The Worker and the State,"¹ in which he makes a plea for "the democratization of education" and urges that the proper working-out of a national system of industrial education, more or less under federal control, is the only thing that will insure economic, industrial, and social stability in this country. He points out that most of the great army of boys and girls destined to earn their living with their hands waste from four to six years between the time they finish the common-school course and the time when they are old enough to secure places in factories. The result is that many of them drift into unskilled labor, and comparatively few rise above this class.

Miss Annie Marion MacLean is the author of "Wage-Earning Women,"² a compact and admirable summary of the industrial conditions faced by women in every part of the United States. The material that went into this book was gathered, not by correspondence, but by actual personal contact, and there is evidence of this on every page. In other words, it is a vital treatment of the subject, and not a mere statistical abstract.

Another presentation of the problem of women in industry is made by Rheta Childe Dorr in a book entitled "What Eight Million Women Want."³ Among the topics treated in this volume are: "American Women and the Common Law," "Women's Demands on the Rulers of Industry," "Making Over the Factory from the Inside," "The Servant in Her House," and "Votes for Women." Many of these chapters appeared as special articles in *Hampton's Magazine*.

A revised edition of "The American Business Woman,"⁴ by John Howard Cromwell, has appeared after an interval of some ten years since the publication of the first edition. During this time there have, of course, been changes in the laws and customs affecting some of the subjects considered in the book, and some subjects which were not considered at all in the previous edition have now been incorporated. The book is intended as a guide for the investment, preservation, and accumulation of property. It contains explanations and illustrations of all necessary methods of business.

"State Socialism in New Zealand"⁵ gives the results of a first-hand study of the political and economic situation in that land of experimentation, as conducted by an American university professor with the assistance of a barrister in practice at Dunedin, New Zealand. Two important chapters of the book deal with compulsory arbitration, and these chapters have had the advantage of revision by the father of the New Zealand arbitration act, Mr. Reeves, late High Commissioner for New Zealand in London.

"The Conservation of Water"⁶ is the title of a timely volume from the pen of John L. Mathews, author of "Re-making the Mississippi." This writer gives a lively exposition of what is meant by water as a resource, of water power and the mining of the white coal, of swamp drainage, and

of the general results of the conservation of water. The book is illustrated from photographs.

Mr. Carl S. Vrooman gives an interesting and suggestive discussion of American railway problems in the light of European experience.⁷ His general topic resolves itself into the controverted question: government regulation versus government operation. Mr. Vrooman has been over the European railway situation with great care, and the result of his studies is to convince him that the most probable ultimate solution of the transportation problem in this country is public ownership and operation. Nevertheless, he advocates no undue hastening of the process of nationalization, preferring to wait until the people have been presented with what he terms "a generous diet of thoroughly authenticated economic facts." Instead of treating the general subject of railway transportation by countries, as has been done by other writers, Mr. Vrooman has adopted the plan of taking up, one at a time, our most important and least understood railway problems in order to focus upon each of them whatever light could be gained from the combined experience of the several European countries investigated.

A fifth edition of Prof. F. W. Taussig's "Tariff History of the United States"⁸ brings the subject up to date by the addition of a chapter on the Payne-Aldrich act of 1909. Professor Taussig's work has long been recognized as the standard authority on our tariff history and is made still more valuable by the inclusion of the chapter on the new law.

An expanded edition of the book originally entitled "Europe's Optical Illusion," by Norman Angell, has been brought out simultaneously—so the publishers inform us—in England, Germany, France, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and the United States. The new edition, entitled "The Great Illusion,"⁹ is simply an expansion of the original work, which we reviewed some months ago in these pages. The illusion, according to Mr. Angell, is the false belief on the part of Europe, and to a certain extent the world in general, that any real benefit can come to anyone from the conquest of one country by another. "If credit and commercial contracts, which are the foundations of wealth, are tampered with in an attempt at confiscation by a conqueror, the credit-dependent wealth not only vanishes, thus giving the conqueror nothing for his conquest, but, in its collapse, involves the conqueror; so that, if conquest is not to injure the conqueror, he must scrupulously respect the enemy's property,—in which case conquest becomes economically futile."

"THE AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH" REVISED

Ambassador Bryce has completed a revision of "The American Commonwealth,"¹⁰ a work which was accepted many years ago as the leading authority on the political system of the United States. There are many important additions to the original text, which, however, do not affect the general plan of the work. Four chapters, on the other hand, are entirely new, and should be specifically noted. These deal, respectively, with the transmarine possessions of the United States which have been acquired since the first edition of "The

¹ The Worker and the State. By Arthur D. Dean. Century. 355 pp. \$1.20.

² Wage-Earning Women. By Annie Marion MacLean. Macmillan. 202 pp. \$1.25.

³ What Eight Million Women Want. By Rheta Childe Dorr. Small, Maynard & Co. 339 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ The American Business Woman. By John H. Cromwell. Putnam. 375 pp. \$2.

⁵ State Socialism in New Zealand. By James Edward Le Rossignol and William Downie Stewart. T. Y. Crowell & Company. 311 pp. \$1.50.

⁶ The Conservation of Water. By John L. Mathews. Small, Maynard & Co. 289 pp., ill. \$2.

⁷ American Railway Problems in the Light of European Experience. By Carl S. Vrooman. London: Henry Frowde. 376 pp. \$1.50.

⁸ Tariff History of the United States. By F. W. Taussig. Putnam. 422 pp. \$1.50.

⁹ The Great Illusion. By Norman Angell. Putnam. 388 pp. \$1.50.

¹⁰ The American Commonwealth. By James Bryce. Macmillan Company. 2 vols. 1704 pp. \$4.00.

American Commonwealth" was published; the recent influx of immigrants from Central and Southern Europe; new phases of the negro problem in the South; and the remarkable development in the past few years of American universities. The chapter on municipal government, which was contributed to the first edition by the Hon. Seth Low, has been entirely rewritten by that gentleman, and new matter of interest relating to city government and city politics has been incorporated. Throughout the work Mr. Bryce has introduced concise descriptions of what he regards as noteworthy new phenomena in American politics and society. "The American Commonwealth" first appeared in 1888 as a result of many years of searching and painstaking investigation on the part of the author. A revised and much enlarged edition appeared in 1893-95, and since that date various minor corrections and additions have, from time to time, been made. We shall make further reference to this work.

HISTORICAL WORKS

A useful "footnote to history" is supplied by Dr. D. Maclaren Robertson's account of the French Academy from its foundation, in 1635, down to the present day.¹ It was in connection with his investigations into the history of the great French dictionary that Dr. Robertson became interested in the life story of one of the most famous of the world's literary institutions. He has supplied his readable volume with a number of illustrations, besides an appendix giving the names of the members of the French Academy during its history.

Mary Crawford (Mrs. Hugh) Fraser has added another to her list of entertaining and instructive books of diplomatic experiences. Her latest volume, summing up her reminiscences, is entitled "A Diplomatist's Wife in Many Lands."² Mrs. Fraser, as the wife of an English representative abroad whose career covered more than half a century, has seen the intimate side of diplomatic life in many European countries as well as in the United States. In the two volumes of the present work she records some very interesting memories of the Italian *Risorgimento* and of the Mexican revolution of 1867.

Two recently published volumes treat of life in ancient Rome from more intimate standpoints than those usually taken in surveying the ancient world. Miss Elizabeth W. Champney's "Romance of Imperial Rome"³ tells us the stories of most of the "empresses" of the Roman state and of some of the women of less exalted rank but greater notoriety. The volume is copiously and artistically illustrated, chiefly by reproductions of famous paintings. Prof. William Stearns Davis (ancient

history, University of Minnesota), in his study, "The Influence of Wealth in Imperial Rome,"⁴ takes for his text the "truth" that "the Romans owed much, both of their greatness and of their ultimate failure, to the supreme estimate they put upon wealth and its concomitants."

"To gauge the great political experiment of France during the last four decades, and to make an inventory of the constructive and reformative work of the republic,"—this has been the aim of Prof. Jean Charlemagne Bracq (Vassar) in his book "France Under the Republic."⁵ If we bear in mind, says Professor Bracq, the complexity of the national problems and the difficulties thrown in the path of the French people,—“difficulties of history and religion which Americans have never experienced,—we shall be filled with admiration for the republicans of France who, not without making many blunders, have, on the whole, wrought so well."

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

In the "American Nature Series" an excellent little volume on "Insects and Disease"⁶ is contributed by Prof. Rennie W. Doane, of Stanford University. This book gives not only a popular account, admirably illustrated, of the way in which insects may spread or cause some of our common diseases, but many helpful suggestions of practical methods to be employed in doing away with some of the most serious of our insect pests. The chapters on mosquitoes, for example, are full of encouragement for all who are interested in the warfare that is being waged against these disseminators of malaria and yellow fever. The same thing is true of the chapter devoted to house flies, or "typhoid flies."

Two recent efforts at stimulating a more intelligent reading of the Scriptures attempt to present to the modern reader the Bible in connected narrative form. In "The Old Testament Narrative,"⁷ Mr. Alfred D. Sheffield has taken the old classic English version, separated the passages, reset them in connected order, and edited them so that the sequence of events in the modern sense is preserved. "The Narrative Bible,"⁸ edited by Clifton Johnson, has attempted to do much the same thing, with omissions, however, of such portions as are not necessary for the connected narrative. This second volume is illustrated with reproductions of some of Gustave Doré's famous pictures.

¹ Romance of Imperial Rome. By Elizabeth W. Champney. Putnam. 425 pp., ill. \$3.50.

² The Influence of Wealth in Imperial Rome. By William Stearns Davis. Macmillan. 340 pp. \$2.

³ France Under the Republic. By Jean Charlemagne Bracq. Scribner. 376 pp. \$1.50.

⁴ Insects and Disease. By R. W. Doane. Henry Holt. 227 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ The Old Testament Narrative. Edited by Alfred Dwight Sheffield. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 510 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁶ The Narrative Bible. Edited by Clifton Johnson Baker & Taylor Company. 410 pp., ill. \$1.50.

¹ The French Academy. By D. Maclaren Robertson. G. W. Dillingham Company. 380 pp. \$3.

² A Diplomatist's Wife in Many Lands. By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. Dodd, Mead & Co. 2 vols., 678 pp., por. \$6.00.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

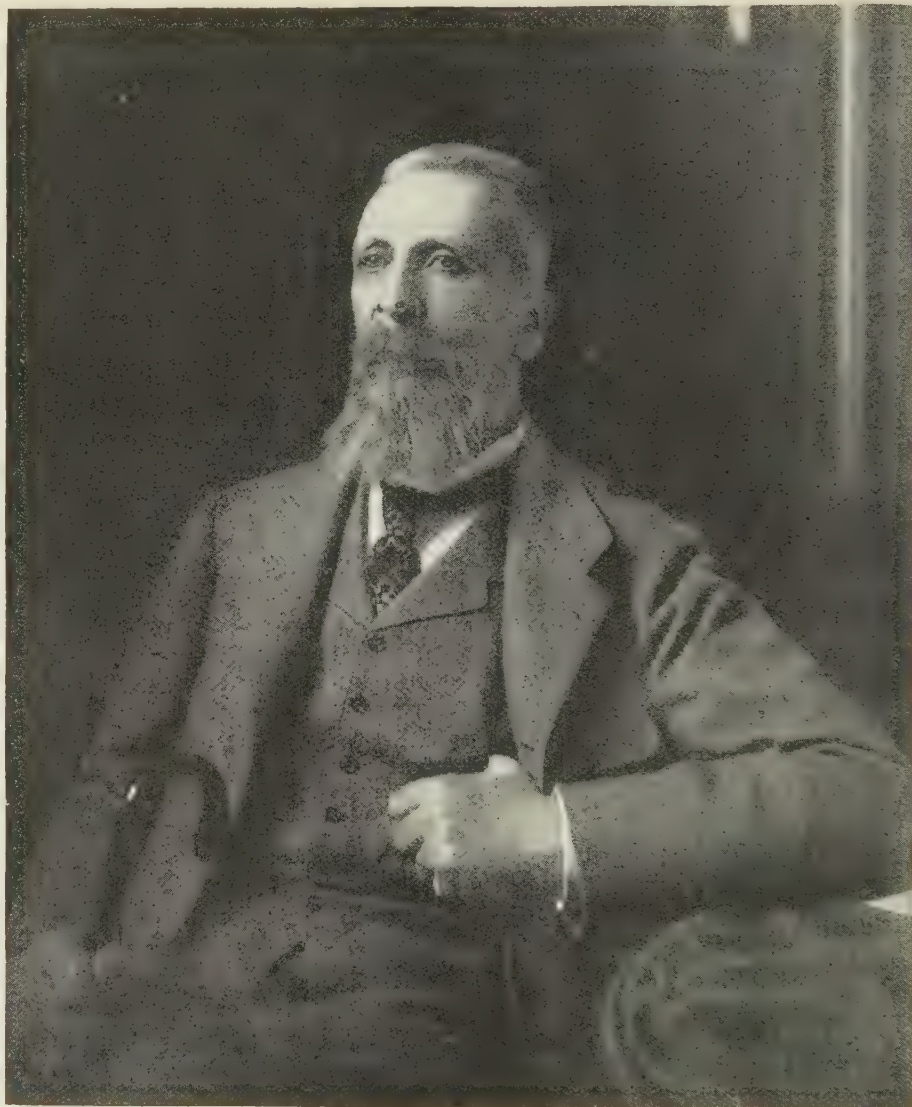
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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Photograph by the Campbell Studio, N. Y.

COUNT ALBERT APPONYI, THE ILLUSTRIOUS HUNGARIAN ADVOCATE OF UNIVERSAL PEACE

Author, statesman, patriot, jurist, member of the Hungarian House of Commons for forty years, leader of the Hungarian Independent party, and at present Royal Hungarian Minister of Public Education, Count Albert Apponyi has had a most distinguished career. Last month he paid a visit to the United States for the purpose of conveying to the "peace lovers of the new world a message from the old world enemies of war." On February 9 the unusual spectacle was witnessed in the House of Representatives of Count Apponyi standing, by special invitation, in Speaker Cannon's rostrum and addressing the lower House of Congress. "Since," said Count Apponyi, in his address in New York later, "America is a safeguard against reaction anywhere and a practical demonstration of the power of democracy, America is, or is to be, at least, one of the most powerful agents for the promotion of the idea of universal peace."

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

"Patronage" and "Prestige" At Washington last month, whatever might have been said for public consumption, the real question behind the scenes was that of the relation of the executive power to the legislative. There is no ruler on earth possessing anything like the vast and unrestrained power of the President of the United States. It is true that under the rules of the House, even as recently modified, the power of the Speaker is very great. But in the end a determined and masterful President, other things being equal, can break down the resistance of a Speaker. The use of the President's power to hurt or to help can whip many a necessitous legislator into line. "Prestige" and "patronage" are terrible forces when used in a ruthless way.

How the Thing Works A Senator or a Representative in Congress likes to feel that his oath of office is an important thing, and that he is free to consider legislative questions upon their merit. He prefers to have business done with some regard for deliberative processes. But under our system as it really works, a Senator or a Representative is almost absolutely compelled to maintain at least the semblance of cordial relations with the White House and the administrative heads of departments. Members of the law-making bodies are naturally sensitive about their prestige. Not only is life harder for them in Washington when they are put under the ban of White House disfavor, but their position in their respective States or Congressional districts may also suffer. To every Congressman there are endless questions coming from home by every mail that have to be referred to some branch of the federal administration. If your Senator or your Representative is blacklisted at the White House or in a Department, there

are a hundred ways in which either you or some of your fellow-citizens may be put at seeming disadvantage when you desire consideration at the hands of some one connected with the Administration.

The Patronage Game Every Congressman and every Senator must give a good deal of his time and attention to the filling of vacancies in important post offices, to the appointment of custom-house officers, United States district attorneys, United States marshals, and a variety of other officers. It is not easy for a self-respecting member of either branch of Congress who is obliged to call at the White House,—or at the Post-Office Department on necessary business, perhaps relating to the appointment of postmasters in his district,—to submit to the ordeal of being confronted with the question: How are you going to vote on such and such a bill? Or that other question, relative to the next national convention. Every such Congressman or Senator knows very well that for a President to swing the patronage club over his head, and to hold up his post-office appointments with the frank purpose of coercing him into a certain position on matters pending in Congress, is an affront to his personal and official dignity and is a violation of the spirit of the Constitution. These are the things they say privately.

The "Steam-Roller" and the "Lame Ducks" When there has been a mid-term Congressional election that goes against the party in power, thus retiring from office a great many Congressmen and Senators, the last acts of a collapsing and discredited majority in Congress must always bear close watching. These are days and hours that tempt an Administration to resort to the "jamming" process. Unless men in executive power are exceptionally

cool-headed, they lose their judgment in their determination to have their own way. The opportunities for effective use of the patronage club in these closing hours become greatly increased. There are always Senators and Congressmen who have lost their seats but who wish to serve the public for a salary in an appointive office; and they are put in a hard place. The Administration is also put in a position of dire temptation and real danger. Let us say that the Administration particularly desires to pass certain measures. It has made itself believe that it alone is wise as respects what are good measures; and it holds Congress in contempt and detestation. It convinces itself that public opinion would support such enactments as the Administration desires, and that the press is ready to applaud the President for "steam-rolling" these measures through.

*A Scheme of
Rewards and
Punishments*

But how can they be "jammed through"? One way is to appeal frankly to the country, and allow the matter to rest at that point. If the public opinion of a given State or Congressional district is strongly in favor of a proposed measure, the Senator or Representative concerned will not fail to know the views of his constituents. Another method is for the Administration itself to become the most brazen of lobbyists; to count noses in the United States Senate on a pending measure; and then to send for one Senator after another in order to find out what he wants most or what he needs most. This system of rewards and punishments can be elaborated in the hands of those who learn how to use it, until it becomes not merely an offensive thing, but a veritable tyranny. This, to be perfectly frank about it, is the principal reason why no President of the United States ought to be given a second consecutive term. Each administration convinces itself that it has great unfinished duties and obligations to the public, requiring it to continue in office four years longer. Whereupon it proceeds to build up its political power in every direction, with a view to self-perpetuation.

*The Knox
Agreement
with Canada*

Secretary Knox, in our opinion, has done a most creditable piece of work in negotiating and bringing to a conclusion the reciprocity treaty with Canada. This magazine has for twenty years been pointing out the benefits that would result from close trade relations with our neighbor on the north, and will not withhold praise for honest endeavor toward such

ends. It does not follow, however, that this important agreement,—affecting tariff rates at many points and bearing a relationship to the whole fiscal and economic policy of the United States,—ought to have been jammed through Congress without opportunity for thorough discussion. There were strong and sincere members of the House of Representatives who favored the idea of reciprocity with Canada, yet who deeply resented the methods used by President Taft to force this measure to a vote, allowing no real debate, making use of the entire support of the Democratic half of the House, and securing the votes of less than half of the members of his own party. Furthermore, there were many Republican Senators equally disturbed by these methods of virtual coercion from the White House. Senators like Mr. Cummins of Iowa have for many years and with great ability advocated close trade relations with Canada. Such Senators have a right to be heard at length upon the provisions in detail of this particular bill, which must be regarded as part and parcel of our tariff system as a whole, and which has no immediate urgency.

*Mr. Taft
and the
Tariff*

It is now nearly two years since the inauguration of President Taft, and his first act of importance was to call the newly elected Sixty-first Congress together in special session to revise the tariff. During the campaign, in 1908, Mr. Taft had allowed it to be known that he was in favor of a real and significant revision. It was to have been expected that he would express strong views and opinions as to the broad

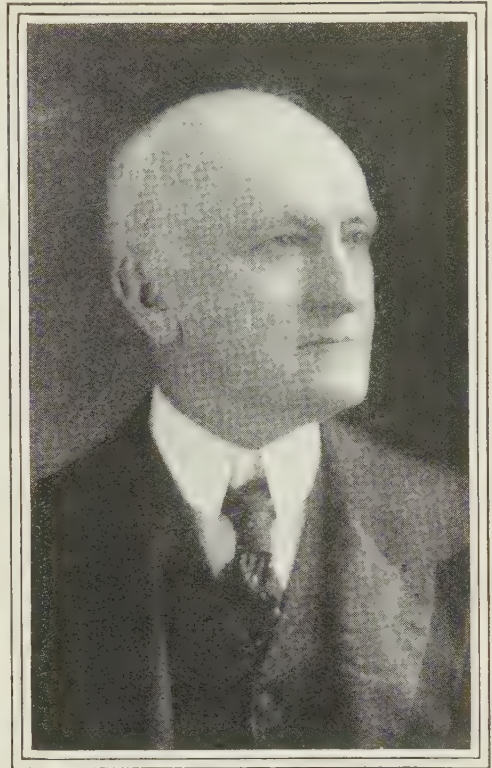


HOW TAFT MAKES SUGGESTIONS THAT CONGRESS SHOULD "GET BUSY"!
From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

lines of a tariff measure. But he assumed no active relation to the work of that special session, and gave no attention to the chief features of the bill,—as every one well remembers,—until almost everything had been done beyond the hope of any fundamental change, and the last details were being settled in conference committee. Mr. Taft then aroused himself, and it was intimated that the bill might be vetoed unless certain items looking like tariff reform could be agreed upon. A magnificent fight was waged by Senator Cummins and others, including the late Senator Dolliver, in favor of a marked revision of the textile schedules. An equally vigorous fight was waged by Senator Beveridge and others in favor of a tariff commission as a means of securing businesslike treatment of tariff questions in future. Cordial and intelligent support from the White House while these great debates were going on in the Senate might have put the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill in a very different shape. But, alas, it was not forthcoming.

*As Chief
Sponsor for
the Payne-
Aldrich Bill*

After the bill was passed, Mr. Taft became its one great, ardent sponsor. Mr. Payne, of the House, as chairman of the House Ways and Means Committee, knew very well that the bill had been shaped by a vast coalition of locality preferences and special interests; and that a different kind of tariff bill could not have been made unless some strong influence, representing the country as a whole, should be thrown into the balance. Here was the opportunity for a President, who had been elected on the promise of helping to secure a real tariff revision. Mr. Payne and Senator Aldrich would have been put in a position to make a much better Republican tariff if Administration pressure, voicing disinterested public opinion, could have helped them to withstand the pressure of local and private interests. But such help was not extended, and Mr. Payne did his best without it. Mr. Taft became the champion, not simply of the accepted Republican doctrine of protection, but of the Payne-Aldrich tariff as a whole. And it was this championship,—together with Mr. Taft's attempt to drive a number of leading Western tariff-reform Senators out of the party as heretics,—that broke the party down in the Congressional elections of 1910. The tariff commission could easily have been created as part of the work of the extra session of 1909, if the President had helped. Mr. Taft is in favor of it now; but the country has given the Democrats a mandate to try their hand at the tariff in a different way.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington
CONGRESSMAN SAMUEL W. M'CALL, OF MASSACHUSETTS
(Who led the fight for approval of the reciprocity agreement,
and jammed it through the House on Feb. 14, with-
out opportunity for amendment or debate)

*Free Paper
for the
Newspapers*

It is freely said among public men at Washington that the great urgency for adopting the present Canadian reciprocity measure is due to the section which is going to give the newspapers free paper and pulp. It is true enough that a good deal of the newspaper support of this measure just now is due to the fact that the publishers have long wanted to get free access to the paper-making materials of the Canadian forests. They worked very hard, at Washington, and in the Payne-Aldrich tariff they got a good deal of concession on the mechanical pulp from which "news print," so called, is made. It is a curious and significant fact that the Payne-Aldrich tariff made no concessions in favor of the chemically treated pulp, out of which is made the paper that magazines and books must use. There was no proper reason, in the nature of things, for this discrimination against magazines. The newspapers exerted very powerful and consistent pressure and gained something. The general provisions for free paper and pulp that had been asked for did not appear in the Payne tariff.

High Tariff
on
Magazine Paper

Now comes the reciprocity treaty, which so completely pleases the metropolitan press by reason of its section providing for free paper and pulp. Before discussing that section any further, we ask our readers to note the exact terms of the treaty as related to paper. Here is the clause itself:

Pulp of wood mechanically ground; pulp of wood, chemical, bleached, or unbleached; news print paper, and other paper and paper board, manufactured from mechanical wood pulp or from chemical wood pulp, or of which such pulp is a component material of chief value, colored in the pulp, or not colored, and *valued at not more than 4 cents per pound, not including printed or decorated wall paper, free.*

The italics, of course, are ours. The trick in the clause is quite obvious. The paper that newspapers are printed upon always costs less than four cents a pound; but the wood-pulp paper that thousands of magazines and periodicals buy costs as a rule somewhere between four cents and five cents a pound. Since the introduction of this reciprocity treaty in Congress, the selling agents of the large paper-makers have informed their inquiring customers that there is no benefit to be derived from this treaty by any publisher of a magazine or by book-publishing houses. There is no possible reason, in the nature of things, why that line should be drawn at four cents. The supposed object of reciprocity in wood pulp, and paper made from pulp, is to enable the

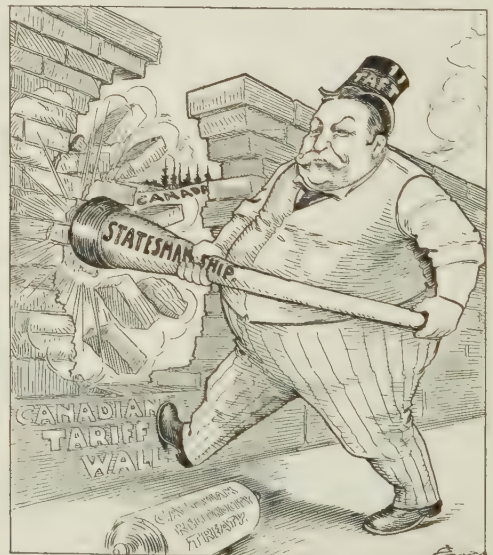
American consumer to draw upon the great and almost unlimited forests of Canada, now that our own forests are so largely swept away. Explanations will be welcomed.

A Joker
of the
Worst Sort

If a price line were to have been drawn in this clause of the treaty, it should have been at five cents, rather than at four. But there is no honest reason for any price line at all. It would be quite sufficient to designate "all paper made from wood pulp as the component material of chief value," as entitled to free entry under the agreement. This would leave out of the treaty the high-priced papers made of rags, linen, and other materials. When the agitation for putting paper and pulp on the free list was begun by the newspaper publishers' association in 1907, they invited the coöperation of the magazines and agreed to make no distinction in their claims on behalf of all wood-pulp paper used for making newspapers, periodicals, and books. It was with this understanding that Mr. Roosevelt, in his message to Congress of December, 1907, proposed that such paper and pulp should be put upon the free list by a special enactment. There was no thought at that time in anybody's mind of running a discriminating line through the measure in such a way as to give the newspapers their supply free, while subjecting the slightly better finished paper of periodicals to a very high rate of duty. The arguments for free "news-print" apply with equal force to magazine and book papers.



TAFT LASHES CONGRESS WITH THE THREAT OF AN
EXTRA SESSION
From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago)



TAFT BATTERING DOWN THE WALL (WITH THE CHIEF
EMPHASIS ON THE "BATTERING" SYSTEM)
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

*Read Your
Bill Before
You Vote*

It is precisely because of many things of this kind, requiring explanation and discussion, that it is such a dangerous affair to jam an elaborate tariff bill down the throats of Congressmen and Senators before they even know what the measure contains. The late Senator Dolliver, objecting to this sort of thing in one of his last brilliant speeches on the floor of the Senate, made his witty definition of an "insurgent" as a man who insisted that a bill should at least be read before finally voted upon. There are a great many people besides Senator Cummins who wish to know why this treaty admits to the United States Canadian cattle but excludes Canadian beef. It would be much better for American consumers if the beef as well as the cattle were admitted free of duty. It is nothing to us in this country whether the Canadians allow a reciprocal arrangement or not. Our tariff arrangements should be made for the benefit of our own people. And it would be most desirable that they should be well discussed in detail, and thoroughly understood, before being adopted. It will not do to reproach consistent and conservative Republican protectionists on the one hand, nor yet the advanced tariff reformers on the other hand, for uniting in their wish to have this agreement studied and debated.

*Where the
Democrats
Score*

From the standpoint of party advantage, this measure must rebound wholly to the benefit of the Democrats. Its negotiation, by Secretary Knox and his technical helpers, has no party bearing one way or the other. But its swift and undebated passage through the House of Representatives,—with the solid support of the Democrats and the reluctant support of a minority of the Republicans,—gives all the political benefit of it, very properly, to the Democratic party. It does not make them responsible for the mistakes of this measure, but gives them a right to claim whatever merit there may be in it as a step toward a more liberal kind of tariff policy.

*A Change
of
Program*

A wise plan for the Republicans would have been to reform some one schedule in the present session, and to create a really powerful and important tariff commission with facilities for a rapid but thorough and scientific study of tariff problems. Mr. Taft's insistence upon jamming the reciprocity agreement through Congress involved a complete change of his program, inasmuch as, earlier in the session,

he had determined to press the Tariff Commission bill to a favorable conclusion. Conditions of public business were such in this short session that there was slight chance of accomplishing both things. There are Senators who are still old-fashioned enough and dignified enough to insist that great public measures must have consideration in Congress before they are enacted into law.

*Relations with
Canada
Already Good*

The President, it is true, has spoken with winning and convincing words upon the desirability of closer relations between Canada and the United States. In taking this tone he is walking upon safe and well-trodden ground. Close relations with Canada as a definite policy were far advanced when Mr. Taft was in the cabinet under a former administration. Secretary Root, with the sympathetic aid of the British ambassador, the statesmanlike co-operation of a great Governor General and a great Premier at Ottawa, and the good will of a friendly government at London, faced one problem after another and swept them away. Mr. Root's Canadian policy was of historic significance. Closer trade arrangements would naturally follow the settlement of all disputes, and there are daily signs of a strong trend in the direction of commercial unity. The thing most to be desired is full freedom of trade between Canada and the United States. But there is at this moment no need of a reciprocity trade agreement merely to promote good feeling. There is ample good feeling already. Mr. Champ Clark's allusion to an ultimate political union required no apologies.] It has been freely talked of in England and everywhere else for half a century. If Canada ever wishes to annex us, we shall appreciate the compliment.

*No Rush
about
Reciprocity*

It follows that there can be no desperate rush about a reciprocity treaty that is not in its main features all that could be desired. The best way to secure the Canadian markets for our manufactures is to begin by opening our own markets to those Canadian products that our people need and ought to have. It is not so much what this particular trade agreement contains, as what it omits, that has so profoundly stirred up the American farmers. If they are to see the tariff removed from farm products which they produce, they would like to see it taken from some of the things they have to buy. It is not sufficient for Congress or for the country that Mr. Taft personally demands the passage of this measure. His

state of mind toward Canada is most commendable; but he certainly would not pretend that he had considered this measure in its details. A delay in ratification would mean no affront to Canada, inasmuch as this treaty is of our seeking rather than our neighbor's. Furthermore, the real question is not whether we are conceding too much to Canada, but whether we are denying too much to our own people.

*Pressure
at the
Wrong Time*

In fine, the time for Presidential pressure was in the spring and summer of 1909, when the whole subject of tariff revision was under debate. It would have been easy enough, with Mr. Taft's help at that time, to have made a proper paper-and-pulp schedule, free from such discreditable "jokers" as the four-cent limitation in the pending agreement. It would also have been possible, two years ago, to obtain very different textile schedules from those adopted, and to have secured a real tariff commission. While, then, there are some good things in this agreement with Canada, it is highly proper that Congress should have had an opportunity to study the measure and to debate it. It is also true that most of the good things in the agreement ought to have been embodied in our own tariff legislation, for the benefit of our own people, quite irrespective of Canadian policy.

*A More
Amazing
Instance*

While there might, indeed, be some excuse for trying to get a trade agreement confirmed,—even by the use of patronage and the threat of an extra session,—it is not so easy to understand reasons for some other attempts to achieve legislation by executive pressure and coercion. Late in the pending session, as a total surprise to every one concerned, President Taft and the Postmaster-General demanded that a radical increase in the postal rates on periodicals should be attached as a "rider" to an already completed postal appropriation bill. The uniform second-class postage rate as applied to newspapers and periodicals has been in force for more than a generation. The business of the periodical press has adjusted itself to present conditions as a permanent policy. No change in postal rates or classifications should be made except as a permanent policy carefully worked out. If the publishers are to change their method of doing business they should have fair notice. Any change of rates should be of a nature to be thoroughly understood, and it should have careful study and consideration.

*Some Facts
in the
Case*

There are members of the postal committees of both houses of Congress who have studied these subjects much, and who understand them well. The present Postmaster-General has had no opportunity to study them thoroughly and has given no unusual evidence of understanding them well. Mr. Taft, with a multitude of matters before him, has never had time nor opportunity to know anything whatever about these details of post-office business. Last year, in the long session of Congress, the Post-Office Committee of the House gave many days to full hearings upon the question of increasing postage rates on second-class matter. The chairman of the committee, Hon. John W. Weeks, is a public man of business experience and a strong grasp upon these subjects. He has made it his duty to study the postal problems, and the same thing is true of the other members of the House Committee, both Republicans and Democrats. As a result of their inquiry last year, they were not able to convince themselves that the rates on second-class matter ought to be raised until after we should have secured a business organization of the Post-Office, and could obtain accurate figures, together with conclusions worked out intelligently and fairly by men of knowledge.

*Need of Busi-
ness Methods in
the Post-Office*

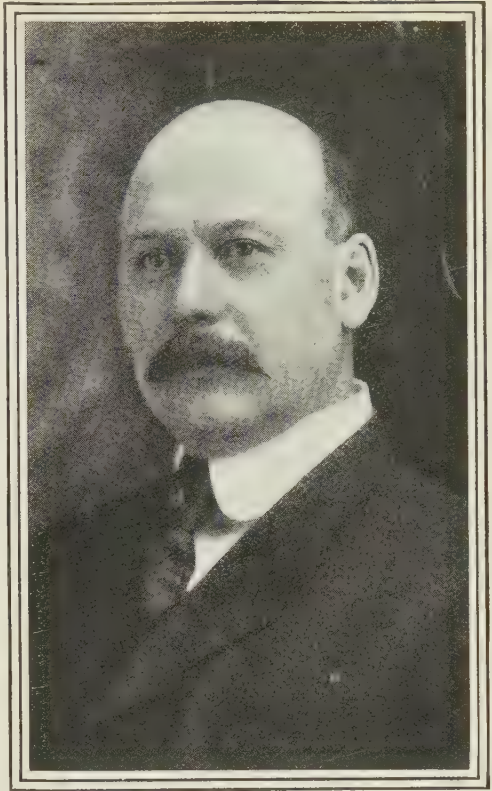
A great joint commission was appointed several years ago, including Senators Penrose, Carter, and Clay, and from the other House the late Mr. Overstreet, with Messrs. Gardner and Moon. This committee held hearings in New York, Washington, and elsewhere, and made an illuminating report, accompanied by a bill of the highest value and importance. This measure was known as the "Overstreet bill" in the House, and as the "Carter bill" in the Senate. It called for a permanent director of posts, with assistants in direct charge of different parts of the business. At present the Post-Office Department, on the administrative side, does not focus at all. The present Postmaster-General, who came to his Cabinet position heavily burdened with the office of chairman of the Republican National Committee, has been obliged to give his time to appointments and to politics. Beneath him is an unmapped administrative wilderness, roughly divided among non-communicating and unrelated tribes, presided over by chiefs whose names and functions are as yet for the most part unknown. There is no single human being who grasps the business as a whole, or administers it with intelligence or skill.

*The Neglected
Carter Bill*

Mr. Meyer and Mr. Cortelyou did remarkably well with an obsolete system, and would undoubtedly have welcomed the reconstruction that the best study of Congress has declared to be necessary. At the present moment, the Senate Committee and the House Committee know perfectly well, and eagerly declare, that the one thing to be done for the Post-Office Department is to clean out its Augean political stables,—which smell to heaven in their rankness,—and make a business organization out of it. This can be done by passing the Carter bill. It has no enemies outside of the Department and its political beneficiaries. It is not the publishers alone who are up in arms against the system as it is. The thousands of faithful employees of the Post-Office Department,—those in the arduous railway-mail service, and those who do the real work in all the other branches,—are the victims of this bad and wasteful system. It ought not to be the business of Postmaster-Generals or traveling post-office inspectors to “round up” delegates for the next national convention. Even the much-maligned railroads, accused of obtaining too much from the Government for carrying the mails, are just as much opposed to the present system as are the publishers.

*The Railroads
Demand Post-
Office Reform*

There is no reason to believe at the present time, however it may have been many years ago, that the railroads are getting more than they ought to have for the work that they do. The railroads of the country have now a joint “Committee on Railway Mail Pay,” of which the chairman is Mr. Kruttschnitt, a high official of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific systems, distinguished for his ability and his thoroughness. The vice-chairman of the committee is Mr. Peters, president of the Long Island Railroad. The six other members are all of them high officials of important railways. They have united in a preliminary report, which became available last month, and which tears to shreds the statistics promulgated by the Post-Office Department on the cost of carrying the mails. Less politics and more business in the Department is the demand of the railroads. The periodical publishers, from their own independent standpoint, have also shown how fallacious and unreliable are the statistical efforts of the Department to bolster up the assault upon the periodicals. It is disgraceful to employ the resources of a great department to support narrow views with wrong figures.



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HON. JOHN W. WEEKS, OF MASSACHUSETTS

(Mr. Weeks, who is chairman of the Postal Committee of the House, is also the champion of forest reserves for the eastern part of the country. His bill, which passed the House last session, was carried through the Senate on February 15 and became a law. Under it we shall secure the great Appalachian Forest Reserve of the South and the mountain forest reserves needed for New England. Passing this bill is one of the few personal triumphs of the expiring Sixty-first Congress.—See also page 272.)

*Who Holds
up the
Carter Bill?*

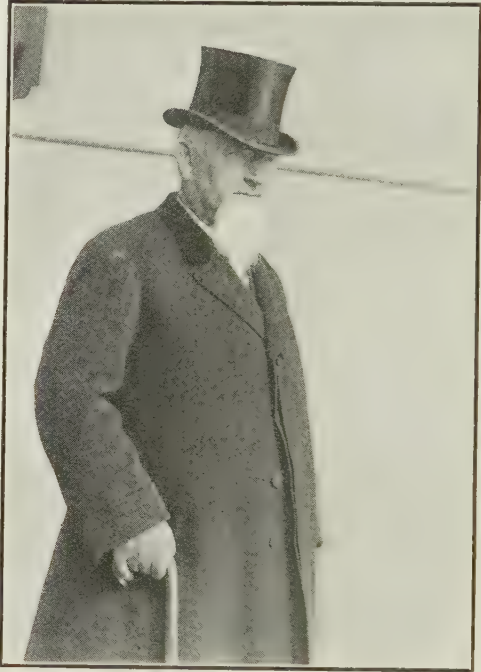
To return, however, to the situation in Congress;—if the Carter bill could have been passed last winter it would have reorganized the Post-Office Department, and then we could have had real economy and an ample surplus, without any change of rates or classifications. Further than that, we could have had an intelligent study and some reliable figures. But why was not the Carter bill passed? For the very simple reason that the Administration, while not openly opposing it, did all that it could to persuade the postal committees not to urge it. It is quite possible indeed that Mr. Taft has never heard of the Carter bill. He had been pushing a very creditable scheme for economy in the departments that would put a stop to the waste in buying lead pencils, and that would in many other ways save not merely cents but thousands of dollars. Yet the one great business

department of the Government which comes into touch with all the people of the country, is run in a slipshod fashion under antiquated laws. And the one obstacle in the way of getting this department on a business basis has been traceable straight to the Administration itself. To have reformed the department before 1912 would have weakened it as a political center. A permanent director of posts would not have allowed his organization to be used for partisan or personal ends.

Speaker Cannon and the Postal Laws Let those people criticize Speaker Cannon who will; but it was Mr. Cannon, in his early career, who gave the American press its broad opportunity, by bills that he promoted when he served on the Postal Committee for the establishment of the uniform pound-rate system. And it was Speaker Cannon who chose and supported the late Mr. Overstreet as chairman of the Postal Committee and who afterwards gave us the committee as now constituted with Mr. Weeks as chairman. Speaker Cannon has keenly felt the attacks of certain periodicals, and has not been wasting any sympathy upon the publishers who might suffer by an increase of the present rate. But never, even in his moods of greatest wrath, has Mr. Cannon forgotten that there are certain legislative proprieties to be observed, and that great and underlying policies should be fairly considered. If one cent a pound on second-class matter is not enough, Mr. Cannon would wish to have the matter thoroughly debated, and openly acted upon. The Overstreet-Penrose commission gave this subject immense study, and refused to recommend an increase in the rate. Chairman Weeks and his committee last winter also wrestled with the question, and declined at present to propose any increase.

The Recent Proceedings During all the early part of the present session, the House committee stood prepared to consider any proposition laid before it. The Postmaster-General was given repeated opportunity to make proposals, but he had nothing to bring forward. The publishers meanwhile were assured by the House committee that if anything were under consideration they should be heard. At length the time was ended for taking up any such question as a change of rate; the postal appropriation bill was completed; and the statement was made that such new matter could not in the closing days of the Sixty-first Congress

come up for discussion. The Senate committee, in turn, took up the appropriation bill, and publishers were informed by its leading members that the question of a change of rate could not and would not be considered in the present session. Mr. Penrose, Mr. Carter, Mr. Crane, and their associates on this committee, were ready to report the appropriation bill, when certain of them were



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SENATOR CARTER, OF MONTANA

(Whose great postal bill has been side-tracked and ignored, while vicious schemes have been forced to the front)

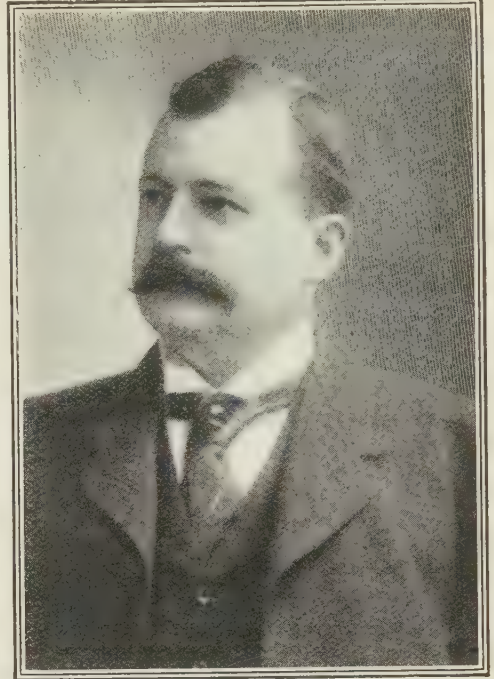
summoned to the White House. They were told that the President and the Postmaster-General were determined to have an increase of postal rates on periodicals attached as a rider to the appropriation bill, and jammed through Congress, for the one and only reason that the Administration desired it.

Senate Committee Not Responsible Several members of the Senate committee were losing their seats as a result of the Democratic landslide. If there were reasons of a personal kind, as has been freely asserted, why they could ill afford to refuse the White House a favor that amounted to a command, it is no concern of ours. It would merely illustrate the patronage evil in another way. The Senators were not guilty of any trickery in allowing this rider to be attached. They admitted freely enough that it was against

the rules of the Senate. The President was informed that it could be thrown out on a point of order, unless the Senate should override its own rules. They were not responsible for the amendment, and they added it to the appropriation bill against their own judgment, as purely extraneous matter, and avowedly at executive dictation. Every opportunity had been given early in the session. The measure was held back until the very last, with the idea that it could be crowded through under cover of an appropriation bill in its final stages. Furthermore, the publishers, who would have demanded a hearing, had been thrown entirely off their guard by means so mysterious and so peculiar (not reflecting in any way upon any member of either House of Congress) as to seem well-nigh beyond belief.

*The
Proposition
itself*

There is no difference of opinion as to the methods pursued in the attempt to jam this proposal through Congress. The plan of a rider on the appropriation bill, sprung at the last moment, is not merely objectionable, but in the light of the circumstances it is scandalous. There is not a man in either branch of Congress who denies this when speaking about it in private. But apart from this scandalous method of proceeding, what about the merits of the proposition itself? The thing proposed is to weigh separately the advertising part of magazines and periodicals of general circulation, and charge it four times as high a rate as at present. Heretofore the post-office has drawn no line between newspapers and periodicals in the matter of the uniform pound rate. The Canadian Government, with a widely scattered population and vast distances to be traveled, charges a much lower uniform rate on newspapers and periodicals than our own. It is the mature conviction of most people who have studied the subject carefully that the uniform pound rate in this country is sound public policy, and that no reason exists for changing it. The Department at Washington says that the average haul of newspapers is shorter than that of periodicals. This is perfectly true, but the cost of handling the newspapers, per pound, including transportation, is decidedly greater than that of handling periodicals. It is a very transparent trick of the Post-Office Department to emphasize the item of transportation and ignore all the other factors of cost. If a dozen large periodicals of wide circulation were suddenly wiped out of existence, the Post-Office Department, instead of



SENATOR BOIES PENROSE, OF PENNSYLVANIA

(Mr. Penrose is chairman of the Senate Committee on Post-Office affairs, and he was also head of the United States Postal Commission, of which Senators Carter and Clay were members, which made a report opposed in every way to the methods and projects of the present Postmaster-General, and which demanded complete business reorganization of the Post-Office Department. The Carter bill was prepared as representing Mr. Penrose's views as well as those of the entire commission composed of three members of each House)

benefiting by its relief from the duty of carrying and distributing them, would be a positive and very considerable loser. This is a proposition that could be demonstrated to the satisfaction of any reasonable mind.

*Taxing
the
Advertisers*

The advertising parts of a magazine are just as legitimate and desirable as the reading part. It is highly profitable to the post-office to carry these advertising pages, because they result in the purchase of millions of two-cent stamps. Furthermore, to put a heavy penalty upon the display advertising pages might have a tendency to cause many periodicals to follow the example of those newspapers that carry advertising matter disguised as news or as pure reading. Nowadays the best magazines and periodicals edit their advertising with great care. There are reasons of public policy why it would be most vicious to discriminate against magazine advertising. The tax proposed would be so heavy, in the case of some periodicals, as to absorb their entire

profits. There is no sound reason for separating magazines from newspapers in the arrangement of postage rates. The country newspapers already have the benefit of entirely free distribution within the county of publication. Other newspapers should claim no favors as against magazines.

*Our New
Censor at
Work*

One of the principal objections to the proposed bill is that the Postmaster-General reserves to himself the right to decide what is a newspaper and what is not. The editors of agricultural periodicals throughout the country were up in arms against this peculiar measure last month, and Postmaster-General Hitchcock, fearing their opposition, proceeded to throw out ballast. Assuming in advance the rôle of censor, he took it upon himself to say that the agricultural publishers need not be worried, inasmuch as he would construe them all as newspapers and exempt them from the new rates. A Senator who had conferred with Mr. Hitchcock regarding an agricultural periodical in the Senator's State, was quoted as saying that our self-constituted arbiter and press censor, in his scheme for dividing the sheep from the goats, had hit upon a very pretty little device for bringing the agricultural periodicals into the fold of the favored class. They could run a few inches of market reports, or something of that kind.

*"Sheets"
vs.
Pages*

They would thus be spared the disaster of paying what in their cases would amount to four cents a pound on their entire weight; for it should be remembered that there are a good many surprising things in the details of Mr. Hitchcock's now famous bill. His proposal to charge quadruple postage applies not merely to advertising *pages*, such as are seen in this magazine, but also to "*sheets* of any publication . . . containing in whole or part any advertisement." It happens that most of the agricultural papers (like the women's magazines and various periodicals having a large page format) are so made up as to carry at least some advertising upon every sheet, though not by any means upon every page. The Hitchcock bill would necessitate a rearrangement of materials that would be almost impossible for the agricultural press, although a periodical printed like this REVIEW, which keeps its reading sheets and its advertising sheets separate, is not affected in that particular. It is obvious that the Postmaster-General, in promising immunity to the agricultural press, has been making assumptions

that Congress may decline to honor. The agricultural editors and publishers cannot, indeed, afford to be penalized. They have just as good reason to claim the uniform one-cent-a-pound rate as have the newspapers, and in most cases their claim is even better. But the agricultural press does not wish to be the recipient of sly or dubious favors at the hands of Mr. Hitchcock as a grantor of indulgences. There is not an agricultural editor in the country who does not know that the periodicals of general circulation have as good title to the uniform postage rate as the more special periodicals.

What reason can there be for exempting the agricultural press, without exempting the press devoted to any other pursuit or calling? Magazines and periodicals like the organ of the American Federation of Labor might ask why coal miners or carpenters or journeymen printers have not as good a right to circulate their periodicals as have the farmers. It was rumored at Washington that the Postmaster-General was also proposing, in this orgy of immunities and indulgences, to soothe the publishers of the religious press of the country. But here again who is to draw the line and how? Our excellent neighbor, *The Churchman*, with its fine pictures of Spanish cathedrals, and its bold views about prelates and statesmen, is a living refutation of the slander that the Episcopal Church interferes with no man's religion or politics. Now, surely, this periodical edited by Dr. McBee belongs in the category of the religious press. But how about another esteemed neighbor, the *Outlook*, edited by the Rev. Dr. Lyman Abbott, with the well-announced assistance of Colonel Roosevelt? Is the *Outlook* any less religious for having changed its name from the *Christian Union*? No one would like to deny the ability of Postmaster-General Hitchcock to decide all these nice questions. He could, indeed, put us all in our proper places. The trouble is that the preliminaries of a great national convention and a Presidential campaign are already looming up before Mr. Hitchcock; and it is morally certain that nobody would ever find him personally working on this new post-office job. The granting of indulgences to the meek and acquiescent (they have been shriven in advance) and the refusal of absolution to the fore-doomed muck-rakers, might be easy enough. But the making out of bills of health for the remaining thousands of periodicals of this country would become tangled up

*Are There
Other Privileged
Characters?*

in red tape, or settled offhand in queer ways by obscure and susceptible underlings.

As to
Certain
Distinctions

Even as things are, the Post-Office Department is in a hopeless tangle of its own arbitrary rulings about second-class matter and other things. An attempt to discriminate among or against periodicals without defining them in the law, would have unanticipated results, and would lead to intolerable tyrannies and abuses. Horace Greeley circulated the *Weekly Tribune* as a national periodical throughout the length and breadth of the land. *Harper's Weekly* in that period, just fifty years ago, was also circulated everywhere. Who would have been so stupid as to suggest that Greeley's weekly should have been mailed at one rate of postage, and *Harper's Weekly* at another? The *Independent*, edited by Henry Ward Beecher, was a powerful weekly in those days, and the elder Bowen, who owned it, would have spoken out in righteous indignation if anybody at Washington had said that newspapers ought to have a more favorable rate of postage than periodicals like his. For exactly twenty years this REVIEW, under continuous direction and editorship, has endeavored to summarize each month the really significant news of the country and of the world and to interpret it with fairness. No periodical or newspaper has conformed, more truly than this one, to the fundamental purposes of Congress when it established the uniform pound rate. It is our mature opinion that the one-cent-a-pound rate would be just as good for the years to come, as it has been for the long years that lie behind.

Cause and
Cure of
Deficits

The slight deficit in the Post-Office Department is due to politics in the first instance. It could be wiped out immediately, by getting rid of political postmasters, and paying only those who do the real work in the post-offices. It could also be gotten rid of by reorganizing the rural free delivery service, not to harm it in the least, but to make it efficient. There are a dozen other ways in which a permanent director of the posts could turn the deficit into a surplus, without a thought of increasing any rates or charges. The expansion of rural free delivery has thrown upon the post-office a huge expenditure without any appreciable income. This expense for a few years might well have been met by a definite appropriation. The profits of the Post-Office Department are so great, however, that they have already almost entirely covered the deficit

created by the rural service. Nothing has prevented the turning of a post-office deficit, now very small, into a large visible surplus, except political obstruction in the way of business reforms; and this political obstruction has come chiefly,—so well-informed Senators and Congressman declare,—from a Postmaster-General who was also at the same time chairman of the National Republican Committee.

Politics and
Nothing
More

The glaring impropriety of turning over the management of the postal business of the United States to the manager of a Presidential campaign, has become obvious to all men of all parties. Mr. Hitchcock, as we have always gladly admitted, could learn to manage the business of the Post-Office Department as well as he has learned the ins and outs of party politics. He is the unhappy victim of a situation that he did not create. But it is impossible for him or any other man to serve these two divergent interests at the same time. How could any man, in so distracting a predicament, give wise thought and direction to postal affairs, or rid his mind of political motives when he has decisions to make? The scheme to penalize the magazines, though pretending to have a postal-revenue motive, has no merits whatever from the revenue standpoint. If second-class matter at one cent a pound is not paying enough, a very simple and obvious device would be to increase that rate by 25 per cent. or even 50 per cent. Such an increase would immediately wipe out the existing deficit, would change no relative conditions, and raise no questions in that broad, shadowy zone between newspapers and periodicals, that no man can be safely allowed to determine.

A Curious
Exemption
Line

The haphazard and ridiculous nature of the recent proposition can be shown by examining another of its details. Tacked on to this new provision are these final words: "*provided, that the increased rate shall not apply to publications mailing less than four thousand pounds of each issue.*" It is stated that Mr. Hitchcock added this proviso to accommodate a Senator who was interested in a comparatively small periodical in his own State. But let us consider for a moment what it means. The great organ of Wall Street, far more profitable than most of the popular periodicals, is the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*. Its subscription price is ten dollars a year, and its advertising rates, of course, are

not low. Yet it claims a circulation of only 2000 copies. Why should it have access to the mails, in order to reach leading bankers throughout the United States, at one cent a pound on its present circulation, while it would have to pay four cents a pound if its circulation were considerably larger? This financial journal, which appears weekly, has a series of special supplements, some of them bulky, amounting to thirty-four in the course of the year. Its "bank and quotation" supplement is monthly, its "railway supplement" is quarterly, and so on. By a proper distribution of these supplements in association with its fifty-two weekly issues, this paper could evidently avoid altogether the four-cent rate, although its supplements are loaded with profitable advertising. If, on the other hand, this admirable organ of banking and financial interests had its issues aggregated on a monthly basis, it would be compelled, undoubtedly, to pay four cents a pound on its entire weight.

Exempting
a Liquor
Organ

The foregoing illustration is used to show how full of tricks is this proviso for the exemption of periodicals mailing less than 4000 pounds at one time. Take another illustration: The great organ of the distillers and wholesale liquor dealers is an extremely valuable property, loaded with high-priced advertising, yet naturally having a restricted circulation. Its outside claim is a circulation of 4500 copies. It circulates throughout the country, so that the post-office must give it the benefit of a long average haul. Yet it would be very feasible for this periodical to keep each copy well inside the weight of sixteen ounces, so as to avoid mailing more than 4000 pounds at each issue. This organ of the liquor trade is purely a commercial affair. It bears no relation to the education or culture of the country. We are not criticizing it, but we should like to ask Mr. Hitchcock and President Taft just why it is that they propose to multiply the postal rate on the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, while exempting from any increase a great number of highly profitable periodicals like this organ of the wine and spirit interests?

A
Senseless
Exemption

The truth is that these strictly commercial or trade organs, loaded with advertising which has no popular character, have always wondered at the liberal treatment accorded them in being allowed to circulate along with regular newspapers and public journals at the one-cent rate. Under the Canadian law, which

at this moment circulates the AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS as a newspaper at one cent a pound (advertising and all), these trade journals now have to pay, at the least, four cents a pound, because they are not recognized as having the news character. The Canadian magazines and periodicals are circulated throughout Canada at one-fourth of a cent a pound. But Mr. Hitchcock now proposes an arrangement that would compel the *Christian Herald*, for example, to pay four cents a pound on its entire weight, while admitting the famous *Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular* at one cent a pound (advertising and all). This, of course, is not devised in the interest of the postal revenues. It costs the Government a great deal more to carry and distribute a pound of mere leaflets, numbering many pieces to the pound, than to carry and deliver magazines weighing a pound per copy. No small publisher has ever claimed that he ought to have a better rate at the post-office than the large publishers. On the other hand, no large publisher has ever wished a better rate than that given to the small publishers,—although the business of the large ones is much more profitable to the post-office. The purpose of the 4000-pound exemption was merely to diminish opposition to the bill. A great many highly profitable commercial and trade organs could so adapt their business as to be exempt under this limit. A monthly periodical mailing 15,000 pounds could become a weekly and escape altogether the increased rate. A weekly paper now mailing somewhat more than 4000 pounds could use a lighter paper, diminish the size of its page, and escape the penalty.

Out with Politics!
In with
Business!

If this discussion seems protracted, the occasion must be urged in justification. Never has so improper or unfair an attack been made upon the freedom of national journalism. The real question is not one of increased postage rates, but one of purposeful and malignant discrimination. The scheme was carefully held back till the last moment, so that Congress might not fully understand it, and so that the periodicals should have no time to discuss it with their readers. Whether wisely or unwisely, the publishers of periodicals bought advertising space in newspapers in order to make the public aware of the imminence and real nature of the trick that was on foot in Washington. Our readers need not be told that this magazine has had no part in that particular method of journalism called "muck-raking." We have endeavored to

treat public officials with all the respect due them—often more than their personal deserts—and have given them the benefit of the doubt in every case. But a public journal owes duties to its readers; and any attempt to muzzle the freedom of magazines and periodicals, in their nation-wide discussion of problems of politics or finance, ought to be repudiated with emphasis. The proposal to set up an odious censorship in the Post-Office Department at Washington deserves rebuke. However Senators and Congressmen may have resented criticisms and personal attacks in certain magazines and periodicals, they do not wish the press to be censored by a political Post-Office Department,—any more than they themselves like to be tyrannized over by that same Department, in the appointments that affect the welfare of their respective localities. We are all of us perfectly willing to pay any postal rate that scientific and able business men may think proper. But the Post-Office Department, which has exercised *petty* tyranny in a hundred ways, is now proposing to exercise *large* tyranny. Only one thing do we ask of our friends and readers; that is, an insistent demand that politics and politicians be scourged out of the post-office system, and that business men and business methods be brought in.

*The President
as Traveler
and Speaker*

Few of our public men who have attained the dignity of chief magistrate, have traveled so widely or have known so many parts of the country at first hand, as has President Taft. Before

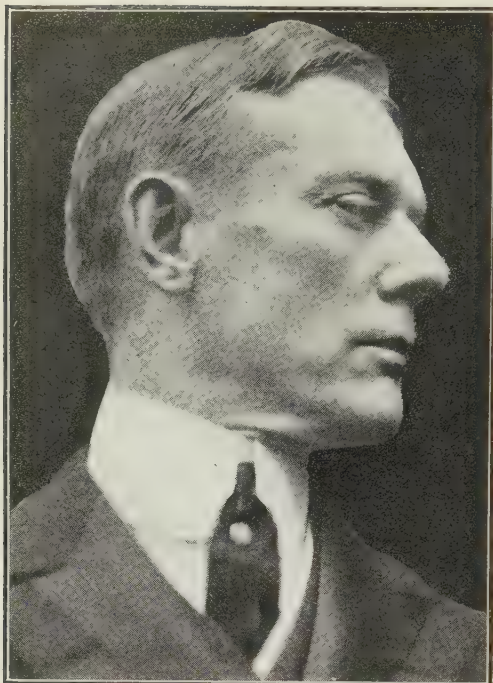
his nomination, Mr. Taft was a veritable globe trotter. Since he has become President he has made many and extensive speech-making trips North and South, East and West. With each succeeding tour his audiences have noticed greater ease and breadth in public speaking. Last month he made a dozen stirring addresses on a variety of subjects at widely separated points. On February 10, addressing the National Corn Exposition at the Ohio State Fair at Columbus, he appealed to the farmers to support Canadian reciprocity. The same day he spoke to the Ohio State University. The next day he admonished the leaders of his party on the subject of reciprocity and political duty, in an address to the Illinois State Legislature at Springfield. After speeches at Decatur and other towns, he made the Lincoln address to the Springfield Chamber of Commerce. Early in the present month he will begin a Southern tour of speech-making with an address, on March 8, before the Southern Commercial Congress at Atlanta, Georgia. In June he will move to his summer home at Beverly, Massachusetts, and from there several excursions into the East and Middle West are being planned. An itinerary has already been made for a fall tour to begin with an address at the Kansas State Fair at Hutchinson, late in September. President Taft's reasoning in behalf of reciprocity with Canada has been cogent and persuasive. However Congress and political leaders generally may have objected to "rail-roading" methods in putting the reciprocity measure through Congress, there can be no difference of opinion as to the propriety and great value of making the people at large acquainted, through the words of the President himself, with the scope, intent and merits of such a measure.



PRESIDENT TAFT: "NOW, WHO'LL CARRY THIS GRIP?"
From the Press (New York)

Great Debating
in the
Senate

Never in recent times has debating in the United States Senate been on a higher plane of ability than in the session now ending. The discussion of the election of Senators by popular vote has been notable. The debate on the Lorimer case has been thorough beyond all Senate precedents. The tariff commission as a topic was somewhat obscured by the unexpected appearance of the reciprocity agreement with Canada. Another topic of the month was the fortification of the Panama Canal. President Taft has insisted upon such fortification, and Mr. Carnegie, as leading American exponent of peace ideas, has fully supported the President. Colonel Goethals,



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SENATOR BEVERIDGE, OF INDIANA

(Whose last weeks at the close of twelve years in the Senate have been marked by great activity and brilliant debating)

who is digging the canal, has shown Congress the engineering problems involved, while Senator Money and others have presented the general arguments in favor of such defenses at Panama as would enable us to make good our purposes in constructing the great waterway. Senator Root's speeches have been of exceptional scope and power in the present session, although many of his admirers had hoped that he might support the measure looking to the popular election of Senators. Senators Root, Burton, Cummins, and others made strong arguments against Mr. Lorimer's retention of his seat, while Senator Bailey of Texas made the principal speech in Lorimer's favor. Senator Beveridge, who retires on the 4th of March, has spoken with great effect on several questions. It is not strange that he should favor strongly the popular election of Senators, and it will be remembered that his minority report turned the tide against Lorimer. Mr. Beveridge was one of the very first to speak on behalf of the prompt ratification of the Canadian agreement. His argument was on the broad policy of close relationship, rather than upon the details of the measure itself. The Ocean Mail Subsidy bill, intended to encourage American steamships,

passed the Senate on February 2, but opposition in the House seemed to indicate that the measure would fail to become a law. We greatly need more direct communication with South America, although the best way to obtain it is a question hard to agree upon.

*Mr. Meyer
and
the Navy*

The Naval appropriation bill carries, in round figures, \$125,000,000. This includes two large battleships and fourteen smaller vessels. Secretary Meyer's management of the Navy Department has won great approval by reason of its intelligence and efficiency. The completion of the Panama Canal, with proper defenses and the full establishment of a naval base in the Caribbean, will enable our fleet to move quickly from one ocean to the other, and will thus in the end permit us to maintain a smaller navy than would otherwise be necessary.

*The
Appalachian
Forest Reserves*

By an overwhelming majority the United States Senate has at last passed a bill for the creation of the Appalachian and White Mountain Forest Reserves. This measure, which had passed the House at the last session, under



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HON. JOSEPH W. BAILEY, OF TEXAS

(Foremost Democratic orator of the Senate)

the energetic championship of Representative Weeks of Massachusetts, authorized an appropriation of approximately \$10,000,000 to be expended by the federal Government in coöperation with the States during the next five years, in protecting the watersheds of navigable streams which have their rise in the White and Appalachian Mountains. The passage of the bill comes not a day too soon for the salvation of the White Mountain forests. Serious ravages have already been committed, but the nation may be thankful that so great an area of fine forest still remains uninjured. The fact that the State of New Hampshire has already taken steps to protect the famous Crawford Notch indicates that a wise and practical coöperation between the federal and State governments may be expected. The bill provides for the appointment of a National Forest Reservation Commission consisting of the Secretaries of War, Agriculture, and the Interior, and two members each of the House and Senate, who shall supervise the purchase of the areas to be included in the reservations. In years past the REVIEW OF REVIEWS has more than once directed attention to the pressing need of such a measure as this, and we are glad to be able to record the successful ending of the long and sometimes discouraging campaign for its adoption.

*A Progressive
Republican
Movement*

Senator Bourne of Oregon is the president of a National Progressive Republican League, the object of which is announced to be "the promotion of popular government and progressive legislation." With possibly one or two exceptions, all the United States Senators who have been classed as Progressives have become members of this league, and most of the well-known leaders in what has been known as the progressive movement in Republican politics are also included in the membership. There are, doubtless, many other organizations that would avow the same general object, but the league sets out to attain that object through five specific reforms. These are: (1) Popular election of United States Senators; (2) Direct primaries for all elective offices; (3) Direct election of delegates to the national convention, with opportunity for the voter to indicate his choice for President and Vice-President; (4) Amendments to the State constitutions providing for the initiative, referendum, and recall; (5) A thorough-going corrupt practices act. Some of the States which the progressive Senators represent have already embodied in their legisla-



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.
HON. GEORGE V. L. MEYER, SECRETARY OF THE NAVY
(A recent snap-shot)

tion all of these reforms except the first, which requires an amendment to the federal Constitution. In Oregon, however, the people have secured what amounts to the same thing as direct election of United States Senators, by compelling candidates for the Legislature to vote for the popular choice. Since these reforms have already made such marked progress in a number of States, the new league may with reason consider itself as justified in working for their adoption in others. Not all Republicans who regard themselves as "progressive" would be willing to declare their adherence to every one of the five methods which the league has adopted for the attainment of its general object. Probably every Progressive Republican, however, would endorse one or more of the five, and many of those who are in that mental attitude are open to conviction, and may later be brought to accept the whole platform of the

league as it stands. On page 333 of this number Mr. Victor Rosewater, of the National Republican Committee, states some of the objections to the Oregon plan for selecting delegates to the national convention by direct primary. In succeeding pages there is an interesting discussion of the question of the hour in American politics—"Will There Be a New Party?" An independent, a Democrat, and a Republican, take part in this discussion.

The Anti-Bribery Campaign

In our February number the work of ridding Adams County, Ohio, of the evil of vote-selling was described in detail. The process of purification, conducted by Judge A. Z. Blair, was continued last month and culminated with the return of 328 indictments by the grand jury in a single day. These were all against voters who had entered voluntary pleas of guilty. The total number of in-

dictments in the county was 2148,—one-third of the electorate. In Scioto County (just east of Adams) similar procedure resulted in forty-one indictments. Meanwhile, a question of the constitutionality of the statute under which Judge Blair acted having been raised, a test case was presented to the State Supreme Court for decision. In the interim proceedings have been suspended by general agreement. In Danville, Illinois, about 200 indictments were returned on February 15 for the offense of vote-selling. It is evident that the lesson of Adams County has been effective beyond the State boundaries.

Women's Votes in Seattle

In the "recall" election for the mayoralty held in the city of Seattle on February 7, the women voters, who had been enfranchised only three months before by the adoption of an amendment to the Washington State constitution, had a striking and unusual opportunity to



MAKING THE SPARKS FLY—APROPOS OF THE "RECALL" ELECTION IN SEATTLE

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)



PROFESSOR CHARLES E. MERRIAM, CANDIDATE IN THE CHICAGO PRIMARIES FOR
THE MAYORALTY NOMINATION ON FEBRUARY 28

show what woman suffrage really means in an important municipal campaign. This particular contest had attracted far more than ordinary attention throughout the country, since it was the second important recall election that has been held since this electoral innovation was proposed, the first having taken place two years ago in the city of Los Angeles. In a total vote of over 62,000, Mayor Gill, whose recall had been demanded, was defeated by a plurality of over 6000 votes, the successful candidate being Mr. George W. Dilling. There seems to be no question whatever that it was the women voters who accomplished Mayor Gill's defeat. The recall petition alleged that Gill had abused the appointive power by selecting men personally unfit for the offices to which they were appointed; that he had not only neglected but had actually refused to enforce the criminal laws, and had permitted Seattle to become a refuge for the criminal classes. In a clearly defined issue of clean government against the open toleration of vice there could be little question of how the women of the city would vote. Of the 71,000 registered

voters in Seattle, 22,000 were women, and a large majority of them voted for the recall.

*Chicago's
Mayoralty
Campaign*

This year's mayoralty election in Chicago is arousing much interest. Although the voting does not take place until April, the candidacies for the primary nominations were well under way early last month. Of the half-dozen candidates for the Republican nomination, the one best known to the country was Prof. Charles E. Merriam, of the University of Chicago, who, five years ago, prepared an important report on the municipal revenues of the city, and after his election as alderman secured the appointment of a commission to investigate the city's expenditures. This body, known as the Merriam Commission, employed the best known available experts in the country to study the various city departments and to devise improved methods. In offering himself as a candidate at the primaries for the mayoralty nomination, Professor Merriam promised to put the constructive recommendations of the commission into effect, should he be elected Mayor.



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A GROUP AT THE GREELEY CENTENARY EXERCISES AT CHAPPAQUA, N. Y.

(Mrs. Clendenin, Horace Greeley's daughter, with her husband, the Rev. Dr. Frank M. Clendenin, in the center)

The present generation neither knows nor honors its great journalists, and that is one reason why the centenary of the greatest of all American newspaper editors was permitted to pass, on the third of last month, with comparatively slight recognition. Unfortunately for his permanent fame, the events of Horace Greeley's latter years caused his surviving contemporaries to remember him as a politician rather than as a molder of public opinion. Yet it is but fair that his career should be judged by what he achieved in his chosen calling, apart from the exigencies of politics. As editor of the *Tribune*, he had a weekly audience of half a million people, representing every Northern State. His hold on the farmers of the North became, indeed, a powerful factor in the election of Lincoln, and later in the support of the Union by the Northern States. Greeley was always a "farmer editor," and it was peculiarly fitting that, on the one hundredth anniversary of his birth, a memorial to him should be begun near the site of his famous home farm at Chappaqua, in Westchester County, now the home of his daughter, Mrs. Gabrielle Greeley Clendenin.



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.

MARKING THE SITE OF THE GREELEY MEMORIAL AT CHAPPAQUA, N. Y., ON FEBRUARY 3



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EUGENE ELY ALIGHTING ON THE DECK OF THE U. S. BATTLESHIP "PENNSYLVANIA"

*The Child
and the
City*

The Child Welfare Exhibit, held in New York during the last week in January and the first half of February, proved to be a great source of popular instruction and even of entertainment. It was visited by nearly 300,000 people. Every visitor, it is safe to say, derived from it some helpful suggestion, which, if put into effect, would give American childhood, especially in great cities, a more wholesome environment than it has now. The committee that assembled the exhibit devoted more than a year to the most painstaking research into "all the conditions of city life which affect city children for good or for evil." The one thing that the exhibit made clear beyond all question was the fact that the welfare of the city child measures the welfare of the city itself. Scores of New York's social, charitable, and educational institutions coöperated in producing this wonderful exhibit. There is no reason why similar demonstrations should not be offered to the citizens of every American metropolis. In wealth of illustrative material no single city can boast a monopoly.

*Progress
in
Aviation*

The art of flying continues to make steady progress. The most striking feats of this kind recently have been achieved over the water. Mr. Glenn Curtiss, after many experiments, has at last made several successful flights from the waters of San Diego Bay, arising and alighting with perfect ease. Eugene Ely's 12-mile flight from the aviation field at San Francisco to the warship *Pennsylvania* anchored in the bay, was also accomplished with entire success. McCurdy's over-water flight of 96 miles from Key West—the longest yet accomplished—was considered practically a success and the aviator received ovations and prizes, although he fell into the sea when within ten miles of Havana, his objective point. These naval feats by *aéroplane* undoubtedly had considerable influence in inducing Congress to make an appropriation of \$125,000 for equipping the Signal Corps with *aéroplanes*. This is not as large a sum as is annually being devoted to this purpose by some of the other nations interested in the military possibilities of aviation, but it is larger than previous appropriations.

*Reciprocity
Not a
New Idea*

Reciprocity with Canada is not a new idea. It is now almost sixty-five years since the Dominion first proposed the plan to the United States. In 1846 Mr. Pakenham, then British Minister at Washington, brought the matter to the attention of Robert Walker, who was at the time Secretary of the United States Treasury. Some months before this the Canadian Parliament had adopted an address to Queen Victoria asking that negotiations be opened to bring about "reciprocal admission of food products upon equal terms." A bill was introduced in the Canadian Parliament, and a similar one was passed by the House of Representatives at Washington, but the Senate ignored it. At that time Canada was more eager than the United States for reciprocity. Four years later a bill was favorably reported from committee in the House at Washington. This measure included a demand for matters which the Canadian Government did not regard as germane to the question at issue. The measure never came to a vote. It was at this time that the questions of fisheries and the free navigation of Canadian waters were injected into the problem, complicating matters so that nothing was done for years. Early in 1854 Lord Elgin, the British Ambassador, conferred with President Pierce on the advantages of reciprocity, and a treaty was finally negotiated providing for the free navigation asked by the Americans, a temporary settlement of the fisheries question, and a certain amount of "freer trade." This treaty lasted for eleven years and then "died of inanition" in 1865. Four years later Sir John Rose headed a mission to Washington to negotiate for reciprocity, which, however, proved fruitless, as did all other negotiations until the present time, owing to the impossibility of finding some common ground. In 1889 Representative Butterworth, of Ohio, introduced in the House a bill for full freedom of trade with the Dominion, but this bill was never reported out of the Ways and Means Committee. There was, at this time, a widespread discussion of the subject. Prominent among the advocates of a freer trade were Erastus Wiman in this country and Goldwin Smith in Canada.

*Laurier
and
Reciprocity*

In 1896 Sir Wilfrid Laurier, in his first premiership, sent two commissioners to Washington, but they accomplished nothing. "We make no more pilgrimages to Washington," said Sir Wilfrid. Since those days Canada has

"found herself." She has been able to maintain an independent position before this country on the tariff question, and to build up her industries with the aid of higher rates and concessions in return for equal favors. Meanwhile economic changes in the United States had brought all parties around to a willingness to consider questions of tariff concessions. Mr. Blaine, when Secretary of State, and later President McKinley, became out-and-out champions of the reciprocity idea. Indeed Mr. McKinley may, in a sense, be called the father of the latest phase of the reciprocity movement. Then came, in the beginning of 1907, the Canadian tour of Mr. Root, at that time Secretary of State. It may be said that in his conferences with Earl Grey, the Governor General, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, and other Canadian statesmen, the way was paved for the complete and cordial understanding which now exists between the two countries. Questions of boundary, the fisheries, postal arrangements and tariff relations were discussed and the two governments made ready for the negotiations which have resulted in the present reciprocity agreement. So that much of the credit of the coming together of the two peoples must be accorded to the statesmanship of Mr. Root and the far-sight of President Roosevelt. The negotiations resulting in the present agreement were begun at Ottawa in September last. The Canadian negotiators were Hon. W. S. Fielding, Minister of Finance; Hon. William Paterson, Minister of Customs; and Mr. James A. Russel, a tariff expert. The American negotiators were Secretary Knox; Mr. Chandler P. Anderson, counselor of the State Department; Mr. Charles M. Pepper, commercial expert of the Bureau of Trade Relations, and Mr. Charles P. Montgomery, chief of the Customs Division of the Treasury Department.

*Concluding
the
Agreement*

The text of the agreement, with elaborate schedules attached, was submitted to Congress on January 26, with a special message from President Taft urging its prompt enactment into law. On the same day the Hon. W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance, addressed the Dominion House of Commons at Ottawa, giving the history of the reciprocity negotiations, and laying the agreement itself upon the table of the House. A bill embodying the provisions of the program was immediately introduced in the House of Representatives at Washington by Hon. Samuel W. McCall of Massachusetts. It was favor-

ably reported by the Ways and Means Committee on February 10, and, four days later, the House passed it by a vote of 221-93. The bill went through without any amendment except a technical one proposed by the committee "to clarify the section relating to wood pulp and print paper, in order that it might more closely conform to the ideas of the negotiators." On February 15, it was referred to the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate and at once turned over to the Finance Committee. On February 7 the Canadian Government caucus decided in favor of the measure, which came before it in the form of a resolution drawn up by the Minister of Finance. This was adopted at once. Its provisions were then presented to the Dominion House of Commons in the form of a bill amending the Customs Act. This measure was considered, schedule by schedule, and the opposition recorded its disapproval, item by item. It was expected, however, that by the first of the present month the measure would go through with the normal government majority, which, at the present time, is about fifty votes.

*What the
Program
Provides*

From the summary of the changes provided by the new agreement, which was given out to the press on January 26 concurrently by our own State Department and the Dominion authorities at Ottawa, we learn that the program provides for the abolition of duty on a number of staple articles of trade between the two countries, and for the reduction of duties on many others. On wheat and other grains, dairy products, fresh fruits and vegetables, fish, eggs and poultry, cattle and other live animals the duty is abolished entirely by both countries. The United States makes rough timber free, and Canada replies by letting in cotton-seed oil without a duty. Both countries abolish the duty on tin and tin plates and on barbed-wire fencing, all forming the basis of a considerable trade. The agreement provides that print paper is to become free on the removal of all restriction now on the exportation of pulp wood. Canada reduces to the United States rate her former duties on agricultural implements. She also reduces the duty on coal and cement, and the United States does the same on iron ore and dressed lumber. Furthermore, there will be reductions to the same level on canned food products and other food stuffs partly manufactured. The United States proposes to reduce the duties by a total of approximately \$5,000,000, and Canada by \$2,500,000. The

value of articles imported into the United States affected by the reciprocity agreement is approximately \$47,000,000, and the value of articles imported into Canada from the United States affected by the agreement is slightly over \$47,000,000.

*Opinion at
Home
and Abroad*

Three countries have been deeply interested in this effort of the American and Canadian peoples to come to a reasonable and mutually satisfactory trade agreement. The press of the United States, of Canada and of Great Britain, during the days immediately following the passage of the reciprocity bill by the House of Representatives, teemed with comment pro and con, and with news despatches recounting the approval and opposition registered by political leaders, commercial organizations and prominent business interests in all three countries. There can be no doubt that the proposed tariff has interested the American people. They understand it as they have, perhaps, seldom understood a tariff bill before. It directly affects them as consumers, because it reduces import duties on articles of universal consumption. As to the political party disapproval of the tactics of the administration in forcing through the measure we have already spoken. The opposition to the bill as a trade agreement has come mainly from four sources: the makers of print paper, who fear a loss of profit; New England fishermen, who apprehend injury to their business from Canadian competition; and an uncertain but probably large number of farmers, and some politicians. The lumber interests also are against it. Among the organizations which, up to the middle of last month, had openly declared their opposition were the National Grange and other agricultural societies, and a number of chambers of commerce and several political leaders, including Speaker Cannon.

*Conflicting
New England
Views*

Only a few of the opponents of the present agreement maintain that it will prove injurious to the country at large. They do claim, however, that it will be bad for farmers and lumber dealers and that it will upset conditions along the Canadian boundary and inflict a certain amount of damage, as yet unascertained, upon the border interests. But even the border States do not quite agree as to the injurious effect predicted. While flags were at half mast in Gloucester harbor, in the town itself there were those who maintained that the new order would be a good thing for the fishing business,

Governor Foss, of Massachusetts, and most of the representatives of that State in Congress, are heartily in accord with the new policy. Mr. Foss sent a special letter to the Legislature urging it to draw up a memorial to Congress on behalf of reciprocity. Senator Hale is quoted as believing that Maine's prosperity will be imperiled by the free admission of Canadian products. On the other hand, the city of Portland has declared its approval, and the Maine Legislature has passed resolutions commending reciprocity.

*Eminent
Testimony in
Favor*

The measure, moreover, has had the earnest championship of Secretary Knox, who negotiated the agreement, Secretary Wilson, Senator Beveridge and Speaker-to-be Champ Clark. Secretary Wilson, whose words go a long way with the farmers of the country, in an open letter last month to the legislative committee of the National Grange of New Hampshire, told the farmers that they should favor reciprocity. He declared that the United States can with profit and benefit take all the grain that Canada has to sell and devote its own lands to less exhausting crops. Senator Beveridge, in a speech in the Senate on February 9, contended that the greatest benefit of the agreement lay in "its effectiveness in preventing increase in the cost of living and the manipulation of food products." Speaking of the objections the Senator declared further, that "even if they were valid, instead of groundless, all of them put together are a small matter when compared with getting this fundamental and truly national policy established." At the Pan-American Commercial Conference on February 13, Mr. Clark, who will be the next Speaker of the House of Representatives, said: "I am for reciprocity, not only with Canada, but with all the South and Central American republics. My principle is that honest trade never hurt any nation."

*Canada's
Attitude*

The attitude of the Dominion Government toward reciprocity with the United States was first officially indicated in a speech of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, in September last, in the course of which he said:

I believe it is possible to make a treaty with the United States which will not only be of great advantage to us, but equally so to the United States, and I would not have a treaty which was not at least equally profitable to one as to the other. . . . We are asked on either hand by different interests for free trade and protection. It will be our aim to evolve a tariff calculated to benefit the

whole country. The cardinal feature and outstanding principle of the tariff is the British preference, and so long as we stay in office it will remain. It is not the policy of the Canadian Government to ask Great Britain to change her fiscal policy by an iota. We make our own interests, so with Great Britain. The loyalty of Canada to the British Empire is not dependent upon any tariff relations.

We have recorded, from time to time, in these pages, the progress and changes in sentiment on the question of reciprocity among Canadian leaders and commercial interests. It will be remembered that while the negotiations were in progress at Ottawa last fall, several delegations of farmers, representing the large and powerful agricultural interests of the great Canadian west, came to the capital and urged upon the Premier the desirability of reciprocity with the United States. It will be remembered also that a number of the conservative interests of the Eastern provinces, including the coal miners' associations of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island, strongly opposed the idea.

*Official
and
Otherwise*

One of the most vigorous opponents of reciprocity is Mr. R. S. Borden, leader of the opposition in Parliament. His contention is that the present agreement must inevitably tend "to negative the quarter of a century of effort on the part of Canada to build up trade along east and west lines instead of north and south lines, and to destroy the effects of the efforts of the Canadian statesmen and railroad builders of the last twenty-five years." The other side is presented in a vigorous cable despatch, sent on February 8, to Lord Strathcona, Canadian High Commissioner in London, by Minister Fielding. He said:

In making such an arrangement we are realizing the desires of our people for half a century and also that in promoting friendly relations with the neighboring republic we are doing the best possible service to the empire. Canada is seeking markets everywhere for her surplus products, subsidizing steamship lines and sending out commercial agents. Would it not be ridiculous in the pursuit of such a policy to refuse to avail herself of the markets of the great nation lying alongside?

*Keen British
Interest*

An unexpected amount of interest has been manifested in England. When the terms of the agreement were presented in the legislatures of the United States and Canada, a flood of comment was let loose in the British press. In general it may be said that the Liberals and their allies, who favor the maintenance of the present policy of free trade in England, approve of the measure, while the Conserva-

tives and the rest of the opposition, including many of the manufacturers of the United Kingdom, look upon it as a menace to British interests. In the House of Commons, Mr. Balfour, Mr. Austen Chamberlain and a number of other "Tariff Reformers" made vigorous speeches denouncing the reciprocity idea, and contending that the conclusion of the agreement "would have the most disastrous consequences for the future of the Empire." In the Upper House Lord Lansdowne claimed that reciprocity "surely means a detriment to British trade and the deflection of Canadian wheat supply to the United States." The whole history of the Empire is altered, he said, "if the great dominions are encouraged to develop, not on national and imperial lines, but in accord with geographical lines."

Of course there never was in the "As to Annexation", minds of the negotiators of this agreement any notion of its adoption leading to a radical change in Canada's political relationship to the United States—indiscreet public utterances of prominent American statesmen to the contrary, notwithstanding. Secretary Knox, in a spirited address at Chicago, on February 15, set forth with great clearness and positiveness the view of the United States Government on this point. He said in part:

The United States recognizes with satisfaction that the Dominion of Canada is a permanent North American political unit, and that her autonomy is secure. . . . There is not the slightest probability that this racial and moral union will involve any political change or annexation or absorption. It is an ethnological fact that political units of the English-speaking people never lose their autonomy. . . . In the higher atmosphere and broader aspects of the situation it is certain that if there should be any great world movement involving this continent Canada and the United States would, as a matter of course, act in the most perfect concert in defense of the common rights of a common blood and civilization.

Effect on British Politics Several interpellations were made in the House of Commons. One member demanded that the Colonial Secretary request Canada to postpone ratification of the agreement until after the coming imperial conference has been held. Another inquired whether the British Cabinet had been consulted and whether, under the new arrangement, the United Kingdom would be able to send her products to American markets at the same rate as Canadian manufacturers will send theirs. In a general reply to the opposition speeches, including the

interpellations, the Prime Minister stated that the government would not ask Canada to postpone ratification, that Mr. Bryce, the British Ambassador at Washington, had "carefully watched the progress of the agreement on behalf of British interests, but had not assisted therein," and that Britain's preferential agreement with the Dominion gave her no privileges in American markets. He concluded by saying that the present government could do nothing by preference or otherwise "to prevent the natural trend of events; the leveling of the tariff walls between Canada and the United States, which is inevitable." A test vote was then taken, and the government won by a majority of 102, the Irish and the Laborites sustaining Mr. Asquith. The division was taken on the opposition's amendment to the parliamentary address in reply to the speech from the throne. It was moved by Mr. Austen Chamberlain, ex-Chancellor of the Exchequer, and it urged "fiscal reform," with special reference to reciprocity between Canada and the United States.

Reciprocity vs. "Preference" In England, it will be remembered, the question of trade under reciprocal concessions—fair trade, as it is generally called by Englishmen—has for some years been under discussion, and a long agitation has been carried on in favor of the substitution of reciprocity for the traditional policy of free trade. It is pointed out that a free-trade country can force no concessions from countries pursuing a protectionist policy. Reciprocity with the British colonies has been especially desired by British "Tariff Reformers," who see in such reciprocal concessions a step toward a complete customs union of the British empire. The principle of reduced duties toward "nation" members of the empire granting equivalent concessions was instituted by Canada in 1897; a rebate of 12½ per cent. being granted for one year to British goods, and of 25 per cent. after the expiration of one year. Equivalent concessions cannot be granted by Great Britain under the present free-trade policy; hence the development of a system of customs duties is a prerequisite to any considerable extension of reciprocity within the empire, or "preferential trade." The conservative press, led by the always anti-American *Saturday Review*, calls reciprocity, as at present arranged for, an American challenge to Britain and the beginning of the economic annexation of Canada by the United States. The Liberal press contends that the



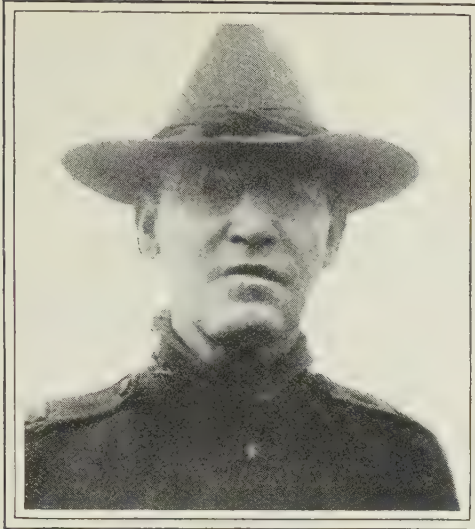
Photograph from the American Press Association, N. Y.

MEXICAN "INSURRECTOES" WATERING THEIR HORSES IN THE RIO GRANDE OPPOSITE EL PASO
(These striking photographs of the insurrection in Mexico were taken last month, while actual fighting was taking place almost all along the border line)



Photograph from the American Press Association, N. Y.

WRECKING A TRAIN ON THE NATIONAL RAILROAD SOUTH OF JUAREZ



Photograph from the American Press Association, N. Y.
AN OFFICER OF THE UNITED STATES REGULARS
PATROLLING THE MEXICAN BORDER

agreement inflicts a serious blow to the idea of imperial preference, which was the cornerstone of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's entire scheme of tariff reform. The general Liberal point of view is summed up by the London *Daily Chronicle*, when it says:

In negotiating reciprocity with the United States, Canada is serving the cause of Britain, for this treaty, by removing causes of friction, and promoting in equal degree American and Canadian interests, will add a new factor to the many other factors that are at work to harmonize Anglo-American relations.

*Mexico's
Insurrec-
tion*

The Mexican insurrection spread over almost all the entire state of Chihuahua last month, and at

one time it seemed as though the revolutionary forces under command of General Pasquale Orozco, the youngest insurgent general (he is only twenty-eight), would not only capture the city of Juarez, but gain a measure of control of the entire north of the republic. Federal troops, however, were rushed to the scene, and Juarez, a town of about 10,000 inhabitants, across the Rio Grande River from El Paso, Texas, was not taken by the "Insurrectoes," although there was some serious fighting in which honors were about

even. By the middle of last month it was believed that General Navarro, the Federal commander who has a thousand or more regulars with him, had control of the situation for the government. It was reported that Alberto Terrazas, Governor of the State of Chihuahua, had resigned, and that he had been succeeded by Miguel Ahumada, former Governor of Jalisco. As far as we can learn at this distance, Señor Terrazas has been very unpopular and weak as an administrator, whereas Señor Ahumada had a reputation for vigor and efficiency. In order to preserve order and protect American interests along the boundary line, a strong force of United States regulars, chiefly cavalry, were ordered southward from various points last month. One of these "Rough and Readys," as well as some of the picturesque "Insurrectoes," are shown in the photographs we reproduce on this and the preceding page.

*The English
Parliamentary
Situation*

The session of the British Parliament, which began on the last day of January, will be devoted mainly to the question of restricting the veto power of the House of Lords. During the opening hours Premier Asquith gave formal notice of his intention to claim the whole time of the House until the Easter recess (beginning on April 13), in order to get the veto bill disposed of before the coronation. Nothing except necessary financial measures will be permitted to interfere with the progress of the veto bill. At the same time Lord Lansdowne was stating in the upper house that the Peers are still ready to negotiate with the government on "the necessary changes in the con-



Photograph from the American Press Association, N. Y.
THE "REBEL" MEXICAN GENERAL OROZCO AND HIS STAFF



THE SPEAKER OF THE BRITISH HOUSE OF COMMONS
IN HIS OFFICIAL ROBES

(Right Hon. J. M. Lowther, who has been chosen Speaker
of the Commons. He was Speaker from 1895 to 1905)

stitution of the upper chamber and the relations between the two houses." If the Lords refuse to accept the government bill, Mr. Asquith has decided to demand the creation of 500 new peers, in order that the government measure may be passed. Early last month it was announced that King George had consented to give the Premier the guaranties demanded. No one, said Mr. Asquith, desires to see a wholesale creation of peers, but "the Ministry has determined that the decision of the voters, twice given, shall not be defeated, and it will not shrink, if extreme measures are adopted on the other side, from taking extreme measures for the protection of the sovereignty of the people." Just before his death, on January 26, Sir Charles Dilke, the leading independent Liberal in the House of Commons, and one of the most astute statesmen in that body for a generation, declared that, in his long experience, he had not known another Prime Minister who had such a united government at his back as has Mr. Asquith. With the Irish vote and the solid Laborite support, the present Liberal Ministry, twice endorsed by the voters at the

polls, will undoubtedly be able to carry out to a successful conclusion its program of many needed reforms.

*France's
Domestic
Problems*

Premier Briand continues to follow up his vigorous, courageous policies in French domestic and foreign affairs. We have referred, from time to time, in these pages, to the efforts made by the French General Confederation of Labor to bring about a general strike, in order to compel governmental compliance with certain economic demands, and to the confusion and disorder frequently resulting therefrom. Last month one of the conservative deputies introduced a resolution in the Chamber demanding that the government take steps to dissolve the General Confederation, or to compel it to respect the laws of the republic. This resolution gave the Premier an opportunity to explain the government's policy. The Confederation, he declared, was the result of the law of 1884 authorizing the creation of trade unions in France. This policy, of course, could not now be abandoned. The Confederation was founded for the perfectly legitimate purpose of securing a reduction of the hours of labor and improving the general conditions of the working classes. It has "gradually, however, fallen under the domination of fifteen or twenty agitators, and has been turned into a political machine advocating violence, sabotage and anti-militarism." These agitators, Premier Briand contends, do not represent the feelings of the more than 3000 members of the confederated trade and labor unions. The policy of the present government, he declares, "is to punish the unlawful acts of individuals, but not to attempt any repressive legislation against the lawfully constituted labor unions."



THE QUESTION OF THE HOUR IN ENGLAND

JOHN BULL: "Shall I mend it or end it?"

From the *Spokesman Review* (Spokane)

*Her Position
in the
World Concert*

In foreign policies the position of France in regard to that general grouping known as the Triple Entente was made clear in a statement addressed on February 2, by M. Pichon, Minister of Foreign Affairs, to the Senate. Referring to the now celebrated Potsdam interview between the German Kaiser and the Russian Czar, and the ambitious naval program of Austria, M. Pichon declared that the French Government had been well aware of the progress of the Russo-German negotiations, and was not in any way alarmed by them. It is "the duty of France to maintain conciliatory relations with the dual monarchy, while at the same time safeguarding the rights of Russia, her ally." As to Anglo-French relations, M. Pichon maintained that "the entente with England has never been more intimate and more complete than it is to-day." France's position in Morocco and in Central Africa, the Foreign Minister continued, is stronger than ever. Replying to the many critics of French foreign policies who are claiming that the republic has become isolated, M. Pichon would have it understood that "France is bound to Russia by an alli-

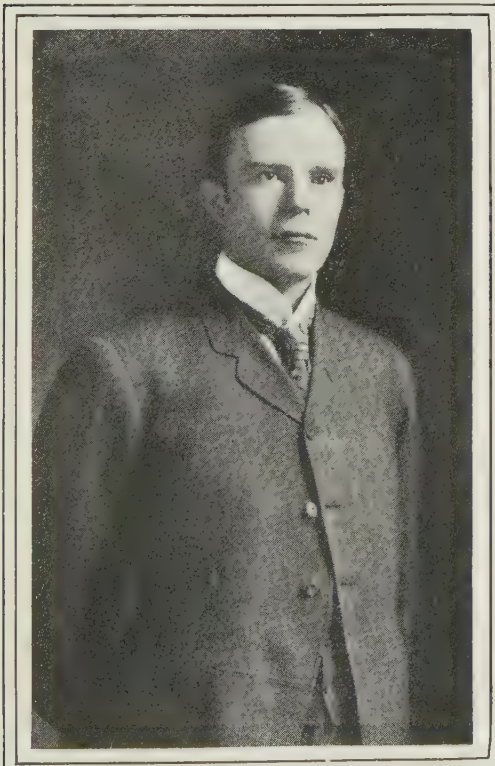
ance, to England by an entente, to Spain by special agreements, and to Japan by other arrangements. She entertains friendly relations with Italy. In short, the voice of France still counts in the councils of Europe."

*Spanish and
Portuguese
Affairs*

Although Spaniards and Portuguese differ slightly in their languages and have had certain divergences in their political history, geography and climate, race and religion have combined to present to them problems that are almost identical. What seriously affects one of necessity deeply concerns the other. The establishment of the republican régime in Portugal has not been without its influence on Spain. Just now, while the Portuguese republic is still on trial before the world and Europe is uncertain whether the democratic wave will also engulf Spain, the sketches of the ruling heads of the two countries we print this month will be interesting. Mr. Lambuth, who has long been a student of Portuguese life and thought, writes from Rio de Janeiro, whence, it will be remembered, he sent us the article on "Real Presidential Politics in Brazil" which we published in December last. Mr. Gordon is a traveler and lecturer of long experience, who knows his Spain thoroughly and sympathetically.

*Persian
Finances*

Late in October the British Foreign Office sent a note to Persia demanding that within three months the government at Teheran restore order on the southern trade routes leading to India. In case this was not done within the time stipulated, Great Britain reserved to herself the right to perform this police duty, and to hold Persia responsible for the expense incurred. In the beginning of last month another note was sent to Teheran calling attention to the unsatisfactory condition in the southern part of the country and demanding a more thorough policing of the region. Russia, which for many months had kept troops in the northern provinces of Persia, on the pretext of maintaining "security," finally consented, in the middle of last month, to recall her forces. Turkish outposts, however, are still on Persian soil, claiming that they are necessary to keep order. Public security, the first consideration of any government, requires an efficient military or police force, and the organization of such a force means a financial drain on such a country as Persia, where money is not plentiful. Foreign loans must be negotiated. The Persians, however, have learned from experience



Photograph by G. G. Bain, N. Y.

W. MORGAN SHUSTER, THE AMERICAN WHO IS TO BE
TREASURER-GENERAL OF PERSIA



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PERSIA'S REPRESENTATIVE AT WASHINGTON AND HIS FAMILY

(Mirza Ali Kuli Khan, Chargé d'Affaires of the Persian legation, who has been largely instrumental in the choice of the five Americans who are to reorganize Persian finances, with his American wife and family)

that financial assistance from Europe usually precedes political control.

To Be Reorganized by Americans

How shall this newly awakened Asiatic country be properly advised in the matter of its finances? Russia and Great Britain have suggested that Persia select financial advisers from Switzerland or some other neutral State. The late Minister of Finance, Sani ed Dowleh (who was assassinated on February 4) suggested French advisers. The Medjlis, or Persian Parliament, however, voted finally to appeal to the United States and to ask the government at Washington to choose five American experts who are to undertake the reorganization of the entire financial system of the country. The Persian Government, through its Chargé d'Affaires in Washington, Mirza Ali Kuli Khan, and with the assistance of the United States Government, finally selected Mr. W. Morgan Shuster, of Washington, to be Treasurer General; Frank E. Cairns to be Director

of Taxation; C. L. McCaskey, of New York, to be Inspector of Provincial Revenues; R. W. Halls, of Washington, to take charge of all auditing and accounting; and Bruce G. Dickey, of Minnesota, to be Inspector of Taxation. Mr. Shuster has been in the Customs Service in Cuba, he has been Collector of Customs for the Philippine Islands, Secretary of Public Instruction at Manila and a member of the Philippine Commission. The other gentlemen chosen have also had years of experience abroad in the service of the United States Government. They will be under the direction of the Persian Minister of Finance, and their contracts will be for the minimum period of three years. Mirza Ali Kuli Khan, who has had charge of Persian affairs at Washington for some months, is an excellent representative of the type of new Persian statesmen who are striving to bring the ancient Iranian monarchy abreast of the current of modern life and thought. Mirza Khan has an American wife.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From January 20 to February 17, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

January 20-21.—The Senate considers the resolution providing for the direct election of Senators. . . . The House debates the Post-Office appropriation bill.

January 24.—In the Senate, Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) speaks in favor of the Gallinger Ocean Mail Subvention bill. . . . The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill.

January 25.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation bill.

January 26.—The Senate passes the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial appropriation bill.

January 28.—In the House, Mr. McCall (Rep., Mass.) introduces the Canadian Reciprocity bill.

January 30.—The House passes the bill creating a permanent tariff board.

January 31.—The Senate passes the River and Harbor appropriation bill (\$36,000,000). . . . The House votes in favor of San Francisco as the proper place to hold the proposed Panama Canal Exposition.

February 2.—The Senate passes a substitute Ocean Mail Subvention bill offered by Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.), the Vice-President casting the deciding vote. . . . The House considers the Agricultural appropriation bill.

February 3.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) urges that the election of Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) be declared void.

February 7.—The Senate passes the Army appropriation bill. . . . The House passes the Lowden bill providing \$500,000 a year for the purchase of embassy buildings abroad.

February 8.—The Senate passes the bill codifying and amending the laws relating to the judiciary.

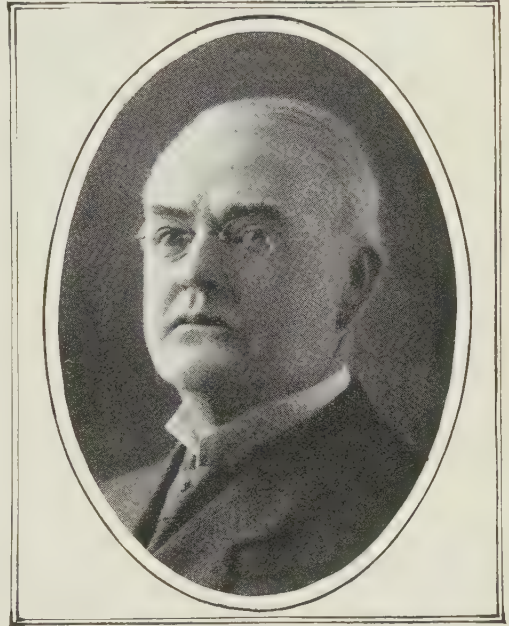
February 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Beveridge (Rep., Ind.) opens the debate on the Canadian reciprocity agreement, speaking in favor of it. . . . The House passes the Crumpacker reapportionment bill, increasing its membership to 433.

February 10.—In the Senate, Mr. Root (Rep., N. Y.) opposes the proposed change in the method of electing Senators.

February 11.—The Senate adopts the resolution designating San Francisco as the place to hold the proposed Panama Canal Exposition. . . . The House passes the Agricultural appropriation bill.

February 14.—In the Senate, Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) closes a two-days' speech in defense of Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.). . . . The House, by vote of 221 to 92, passes the Canadian Reciprocity bill.

February 15.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the convention signed at the second Hague Conference creating an international prize court; a bill providing for the purchase of forest reserves in the White Mountains and the Southwest Appalachians is passed. . . . The House amends the Moon Judiciary bill so as to increase the salary of Supreme Court justices.



HON. JOHN D. WORKS, SENATOR-ELECT FROM CALIFORNIA

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

January 19.—The Ohio House concurs with the Senate in approving the income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution. . . . The Kansas Legislature ratifies the proposed income-tax amendment.

January 21.—President Taft, speaking before the Pennsylvania Society at New York, sets forth the right of the United States to fortify the Panama Canal. . . . The voters of New Mexico, by a majority of 18,000, ratify the proposed State constitution. . . . William Barnes, Jr., is elected chairman of the New York Republican State Committee.

January 23.—After a deadlock lasting three weeks, the Tennessee Legislature elects Luke Lea (Independent Democrat) as United States Senator to succeed James B. Frazier. . . . The Republican Progressive League is organized at Washington and a declaration of principles is issued.

January 24.—The Nevada Legislature, Democratic on joint ballot, reelects to the United States Senate George S. Nixon (Rep.), who carried the primary. . . . The North Carolina Senate and the lower house of the Arkansas Legislature ratify the proposed income-tax amendment.

January 25.—The New Jersey Legislature elects James E. Martine, the Democratic primary choice, to succeed John Kean (Rep.) in the United States Senate. . . . Robert M. La Follette (Rep., Wis.), Henry A. du Pont (Rep., Del.), Clarence D. Clark (Rep., Wyo.), and Charles A. Culberson (Dem.,

Tex.) are reelected to the United States Senate. . . . The income-tax amendment is ratified by the lower branch of the New Hampshire Legislature. . . . Benjamin W. Hooper, the first Republican Governor of Tennessee in thirty years, is inaugurated.

* January 31.—Nathan P. Bryan (Dem.) is nominated for United States Senator in the second Florida primary. . . . Governor Johnson, of California, signs the Walker-Young anti-racetrack-gambling bill.

February 1.—The West Virginia legislators settle their disagreements and elect as United States Senators, William E. Chilton (Dem.) and Clarence W. Watson (Dem.), the latter to serve for the unexpired term of the late Stephen B. Elkins.

February 2.—The California Assembly approves an amendment, already passed by the Senate, which submits to a popular vote the question of woman suffrage. . . . Gifford Pinchot as president of the National Conservation Association, commends President Taft's water-power policy.

February 3.—The Philippine Assembly adjourns, leaving much important work unfinished.

February 4.—The West Virginia House of Delegates ratifies the income-tax amendment. . . . The National Grange plans a campaign against the proposed reciprocity treaty with Canada. . . . Postmaster-General Hitchcock decides to reorganize thoroughly the railway mail service.

February 7.—At a special election, Mayor Gill, of Seattle, is "recalled," and George W. Dilling is chosen to succeed him.

February 8.—A constitutional amendment granting the suffrage to women for all offices except that of President, having previously passed the Kansas House, is passed by the Senate.

February 9.—The proposed constitution for Arizona is ratified by a vote of about 12,000 to 3500.

February 10.—President Taft, speaking at Columbus, Ohio, maintains that the reciprocity agreement with Canada would be a benefit to the American farmer. . . . Governor Colquitt, of Texas, signs the joint resolution which calls for submitting to the voters the question of statewide prohibition.

February 11.—The grand jury investigating vote-selling in Scioto County, Ohio, returns indictments against forty-one persons.

February 13.—Postmaster-General Hitchcock issues a statement defending the proposed increase in magazine postage.

February 15.—More than 200 citizens of Danville, Ill., have been indicted for vote-selling. . . . Secretary Knox and James J. Hill speak in favor of Canadian reciprocity before the Chicago Association of Commerce. . . . The New York Charter Revision Committee reports to the legislature a bill embodying its recommendations.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

January 20.—Ecuador declines to submit to the Hague Tribunal the boundary dispute with Peru.

January 24.—The Austrian budget provides for larger naval and military appropriations and for an increased consular service in the United States.

January 25.—The Belgian Minister of the Colonies reports good progress in the social and economic condition of the Congo Independent State.

January 27.—The twenty-three officers and sailors of the Haitian gunboat *Liberté*, who survived its sinking, are convicted of mutiny and condemned to death.

January 29.—The Mexican insurgents capture Mexicala, near the California boundary. . . . The Portuguese Government grants a pension of \$3300 monthly to the deposed King Manuel.

January 30.—The students of Cracow University (Austria), protesting against the appointment of a German professor, refuse to attend their classes, and the Government orders the institution closed.

January 31.—The second Parliament of King George assembles.

February 1.—The German Reichstag passes the Unearned Increment bill. . . . The Governor of Ispahan, Persia, and his nephew are shot by a Russian.

February 2.—A revolution is begun along the northern coast of Haiti.

February 4.—The Persian Minister of Finance is killed by Armenians in the streets of Teheran.

February 5.—General Guillaume, a leader of the revolt in Haiti, is captured by Government troops and shot. . . . Mexican troops enter the city of Juarez after repulsing an attack by the insurgents under Orozco.

February 6.—King George formally opens the British Parliament; Lord Lansdowne and Mr. Balfour, leaders of the Opposition, denounce the proposed reciprocity agreement between Canada and the United States.

February 7.—General Millionard, head of the Haitian revolutionary forces, is executed by the Government troops.

February 8.—After two days' fighting near Mulata, the Mexican troops are repulsed, with forty killed and wounded. . . . Twenty-five hundred students of the University of St. Petersburg strike in protest against Government restrictions. . . . A vote in the British House of Commons upon a question of fiscal reform, with special reference to the proposed reciprocity agreement between Canada and the United States, indicates that that body favors the agreement. . . . Finance Minister Fielding declares that the Canadian Parliament will ratify the reciprocity agreement with the United States without delay.

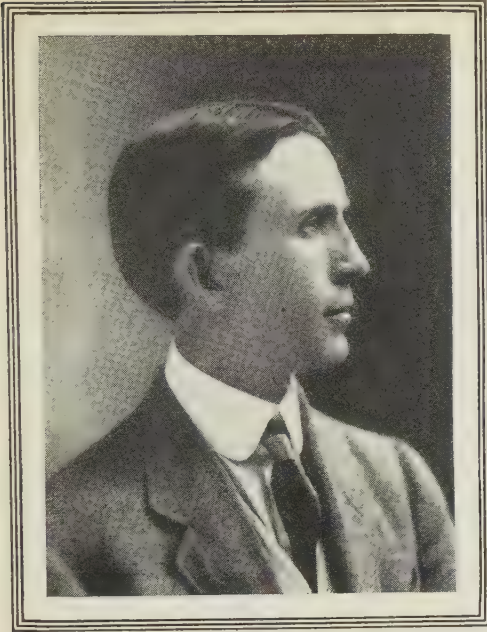
February 10.—The French Senate passes the bill changing the time in France approximately ten minutes, to agree with that of the rest of Western Europe. . . . Timothy Healy wins his fight to nullify the election of Richard Hazleton from Louth, Ireland.

February 11.—It is announced that the Japanese Emperor has given \$750,000 for the relief of the poor.

February 13.—An explosion in the government barracks at Managua, Nicaragua, destroys a large quantity of arms and ammunition; President Estrada declares the country under martial law and orders the arrest of many high officials and citizens.

February 16.—General Navarro, leader of the Mexican government forces, places Juarez under martial law and takes possession of the railway; an attack is made upon the insurgents at Mexicala without success.

February 17.—Emperor William, in an address at Berlin, urges reclamation of land for grazing.



GOV. BENJAMIN HOOPER, OF TENNESSEE

★ (The first Republican Governor of his State in thirty years, inaugurated on January 25)

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

January 20.—The commissioners of the United States and Canada reach a reciprocity agreement at Washington, the principle of which is the exchange of Canadian foodstuffs for American manufactured commodities.

January 22.—The United States Government offers its services to settle the boundary dispute between Haiti and Santo Domingo.

January 23.—China appeals for assistance in scientifically combating the bubonic plague.

January 24.—Santo Domingo is urged by the United States to seek an amicable adjustment of its boundary dispute with Haiti. . . Count Komura, in a speech in the lower house of the Diet, outlines the peaceful aims of Japan.

January 25.—Four troops of American cavalry are sent to points on the Rio Grande to preserve neutrality in the Mexican revolution.

January 26.—The reciprocity agreement between the United States and Canada is submitted to the legislative bodies of both countries.

January 27.—Peru and Ecuador make counter-charges of invasion of the frontier; several men are killed near the border. . . Crowds in Guayaquil, Ecuador, protest against the proposed lease of the Galapagos Islands to the United States for a naval station.

January 29.—President Alfaro, of Ecuador, is forced by popular disapproval to abandon the plan to lease the Galapagos Islands to the United States.

February 1.—The Honduran government troops evacuate Puerto Cortez, leaving the town in the hands of American and British marines.

February 2.—The Honduran Congress refuses to approve President Davilla's negotiations for an

American loan of \$1,000,000. . . The Persian parliament votes to engage five American financial advisers.

February 3.—At the request of President Davilla, President Taft tenders the services of the United States to assist in restoring peace in Honduras. . . The United States Government announces its readiness to assist in combating the plague in China if its services are desired.

February 8.—President Davilla, of Honduras, and General Bonilla, the revolutionary leader, agree to an armistice at the suggestion of the United States.

February 9.—Great Britain and Austria-Hungary agree to submit to the Hague Tribunal any dispute over an existing treaty that cannot be settled by diplomacy.

February 10.—It is announced at Washington that W. Morgan Shuster will be appointed treasurer-general of Persia to reorganize its finances.

February 13.—President Taft designates John Hays Hammond as special ambassador to attend the coronation of King George of England.

February 15.—It is announced at Washington that contracts have been signed for a \$7,500,000 American loan to Honduras.

February 16.—Russia decides to make a military demonstration against China on the common frontier because of alleged violations of the St. Petersburg treaty of 1881.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

January 20.—The bubonic plague spreads throughout Manchuria and Northern China. . . Andrew Carnegie makes an additional gift of \$10,000,000 to the Carnegie Institution at Washington. . . Forty Polish coal miners lose their lives in a fire near Sosnowicz.

January 22.—P. O. Parmalee, using a Wright machine, establishes a new American endurance record of 3 hours and 40 minutes at San Francisco.

January 23.—Madame Curie is defeated for membership in the French Academy of Sciences.

January 25.—John P. White, of Iowa, is chosen president of the United Mine Workers of America.

January 26.—Glenn H. Curtiss, at San Diego, Cal., demonstrates the ability of aeroplanes to rise from and alight on the water.

January 28.—The Diamond Match Company agrees to the cancelation of its patent for a harmless substitute for the poisonous white phosphorus, thereby permitting its general use.

January 30.—An eruption of Mount Taal, on the island of Luzon, accompanied by a tidal wave and a series of earthquakes, causes the death of 700 persons. . . In an attempt to fly from Key West to Havana (approximately 100 miles apart), J. A. D. McCurdy is forced to drop into the sea with his machine when within six miles of the Cuban coast.

February 1.—An explosion of many tons of dynamite and black powder at the freight terminal of the Central Railroad of New Jersey, opposite New York City, kills thirty workmen, destroys a pier and two vessels, and damages property for many miles. . . The British super-Dreadnought *Thunderbolt* is launched in the Thames.

February 2.—Captain Bellinger, a French army aviator, finishes his flight from Vincennes to Pau,

his actual flying time for the 493 miles being 7 hours and 14 minutes; at Pau, LeMartin carries seven passengers for a short flight in his machine.

February 3.—The centenary of the birth of Horace Greeley is celebrated at many places throughout the country.

February 4.—Eight officials of the Jersey Central Railroad and the Du Pont Powder Company are arrested for responsibility for the recent dynamite explosion.

February 5.—The bubonic plague has caused the death of nearly 6000 Chinese and Russians in and around Harbin. . . . A fishing village of 250 inhabitants established on the ice near Helsingfors, Finland, is carried by a gale into the sea. . . . The funeral of Paul Singer, the German Socialist, is attended by many thousands.

February 9.—Count Albert Apponyi, the Hungarian statesman and peace advocate, addresses the House of Representatives at Washington.

February 10.—The American consul at Shanghai appeals to the Red Cross for aid in fighting the plague, stating that 2,000,000 persons are in danger of starving.

February 16.—Thirty-five professors of the University of Moscow resign in protest against the removal of the rector.

February 17.—It is stated that the Viceroy of Manchuria estimates the fatalities from the plague at 65,000, with 10,000 deaths from starvation.

OBITUARY

January 20.—Ex-Congressman Solomon R. Dresser, of Pennsylvania, 69. . . . Rev. Dr. William Heth Whitsett, formerly president of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, 70.

January 21.—Rev. Austin W. Mann, of Cleveland, a deaf-mute minister and organizer of "silent missions," 70.

January 24.—David Graham Phillips, the novelist, 43 (see page 354). . . . Rear-Adm. William H. Reeder, U. S. N., retired, 62. . . . Rev. Edward F. Atwill, Protestant Episcopal bishop of Western Missouri, 70. . . . Charles Barr, the noted yacht skipper, 46.

January 26.—Sir Charles Dilke, a prominent leader of the Liberal party in England, 68.

January 27.—Rear-Adm. David B. Macomb, U. S. N. retired, 84. . . . Joseph W. Reinhart, formerly president of the Santa Fé Railroad, 59. . . . Mrs. Ella Knowles Haskell, of Montana, a noted woman lawyer, 46.

January 28.—Mrs. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps Ward, the author, 66 (see page 355). . . . Henry M. Nevius, formerly commander-in-chief of the G. A. R. . . . John MacWhirter, the English painter, 74. . . . Rev. Dr. John Lemley, an editor of religious publications, 67. . . . Col. Edward L. Russell, vice-president of the Mobile & Ohio Railway, 65.

January 29.—Rev. R. DeWitt Mallory, president of the American International College, 60. . . . Sir William Henry Wills, Baron Winterstoke, the English tobacco manufacturer, 80. . . . John

Lockwood Kipling, the English architectural sculptor and illustrator of his son's books, 73.

January 30.—Rear Adm. Edmund O. Matthews, U. S. N. retired, 75. . . . Col. David Blount Hamilton, of Georgia, formerly prominent in politics and education, 76. . . . Rev. Dr. John Mason Ferris, formerly Secretary of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Dutch Reformed Church, 87. . . . Calvin B. Orcutt, the prominent Newport News ship-builder, 63.

January 31.—Prof. James A. Harrison, a well-known Virginia author and educator, 62. . . . Paul Singer, the German socialist, 67.

February 1.—Rear-Adm. Charles Stillman Sperry, U. S. N. retired, 63. . . . Dr. John Henry Harpster, of Philadelphia, a noted Lutheran minister, 67.

February 2.—Jan Koert, the violinist.

February 4.—Right Rev. Thomas Bonacum, Roman Catholic Bishop of Lincoln, 64. . . . Gen. Piet A. Cronje, the Boer leader in the war with England. . . . Owen Kildare, author of books about the slums of New York, 46. . . . Andrew C. Welch, senior reporter of debates in the House of Representatives, 66.

February 5.—Francis Philip Nash, professor emeritus of Latin at Hobart College, 75.

February 6.—Prof. Leonard P. Kinnicutt, of Massachusetts, an expert on sewerage disposal and water supply, 57.

February 8.—Frederick Archibald Vaughan Campbell, Earl Cawdor, formerly first Lord of the British Admiralty, 64.

February 9.—Bishop Ozi W. Whitaker, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of Pennsylvania, 80. . . . Rear-Adm. Silas W. Terry, U. S. N. retired, 68.

February 10.—Dr. Edward Gamaliel Janeway, of New York, the noted teacher and practitioner of medicine, 69. . . . Ex-Gov. Hiram A. Tuttle, of New Hampshire, 73. . . . James Elverson, proprietor of the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, 73.

February 11.—Archbishop Patrick J. Ryan, of the Archdiocese of Philadelphia, 79. . . . Brig.-Gen. Joseph Rowe Smith, U. S. A. retired, 80. . . . Baron Albert von Rothschild, the Vienna banker, 67.

February 12.—Gen. Alexander S. Webb, formerly President of the College of the City of New York, and commander of a brigade at Gettysburg, 76. . . . Milton J. Durham, comptroller of the Treasury under President Cleveland, 87.

February 13.—Justice Edwin A. Jaggard, of the Minnesota Supreme Court, 52. . . . Rev. Dr. Erskine Norman White, secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Church Erection, 77. . . . Brig.-Gen. Peter Leary, Jr., U. S. A. retired, 70.

February 15.—Prof. Edward Hitchcock, of Amherst College, a pioneer advocate of physical education, 83. . . . Dr. Maurice Fluegel, of Baltimore, a noted historian and scientist, 78. . . . Henry Richardson Chamberlain, London correspondent of the *New York Sun*, 52.

February 16.—Rear-Adm. William Strong Bogert, U. S. N. retired, 74. . . . Rear-Adm. Arthur P. Nazro, U. S. N. retired, formerly medical director, 63. . . . Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, the author, 57.

RECIPROCITY AND OTHER TOPICS IN THE MONTH'S CARTOONS



OVERLOOKING AN OPPORTUNITY

If these two neighbors would lower their glasses they might find the market they're looking for nearer home
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



PRESIDENT TAFT DEMONSTRATING HIS ABILITY TO
KNOCK "THE BEST TARIFF EVER" SO FAR
THAT IT WILL NEVER BE FOUND AGAIN
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)

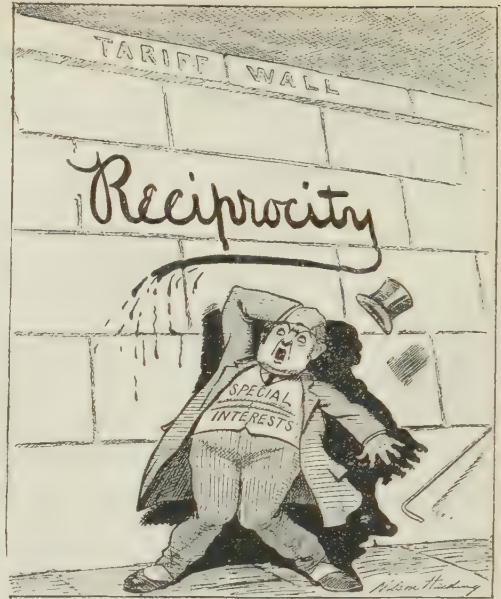


THE AMERICAN FARMER: "Reciprocity with Canada won't hurt me. The trusts control the accumulation and distribution of the crops, robbing me and the consumer alike and fixing the cost of living without any reference to the actual production."

From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)



NOT FULL ENOUGH FOR SENATOR CUMMINS
From the *Herald* (New York)



THE HANDWRITING ON THE WALL
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

Senator Cummins, of Iowa, who was a famous advocate of reciprocity with Canada before its present sponsors had thought of the subject, has now the audacity to declare that the mere label "Reciprocity" is not quite enough, and that he may properly ask what there is in the basket. The first cartoon on

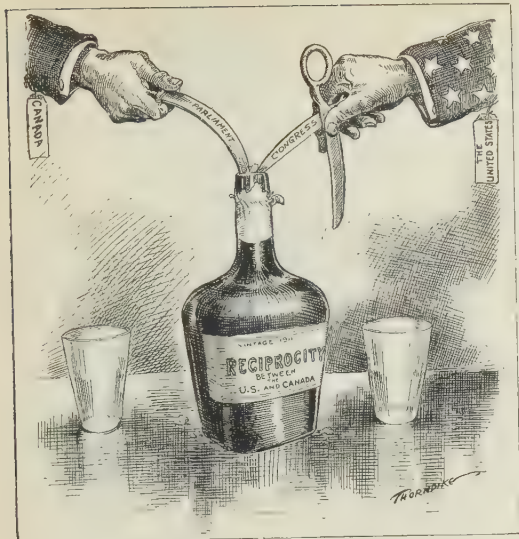
this page refers to that fact. The last one on the page, from the New York *Tribune*, puts Speaker Cannon in a very accurate light. It is true that he thought the jamming of the reciprocity bill through his own House, without chance for debate, was a very improper thing. It was a case of the Rules



UNCLE SAM: "ALL THAT I NEED IS A STARTER, WILLIAM"
From the *Sun* (Baltimore)



"SCANDALOUS DOIN'S, THAT'S WHAT I CALL 'EM"
From the *Tribune* (New York)



IT MAY BE FINE GOODS, BUT THEY ARE HAVING TROUBLE UNCORKING IT
From the *American* (Baltimore)



CROCODILE TEARS
From the *Journal* (Detroit)

Committee obeying the White House rather than the Speaker or the majority party in their own body. The idea frequently expressed that any kind of a reciprocity treaty is a good thing, because it is a starter, was widely circulated last month, but quite invariably by those who had not gone into the merits of this particular agreement.



"COME IN!"

From the *Post-Dispatch* (St. Louis), and reprinted by the *New Orleans Picayune*

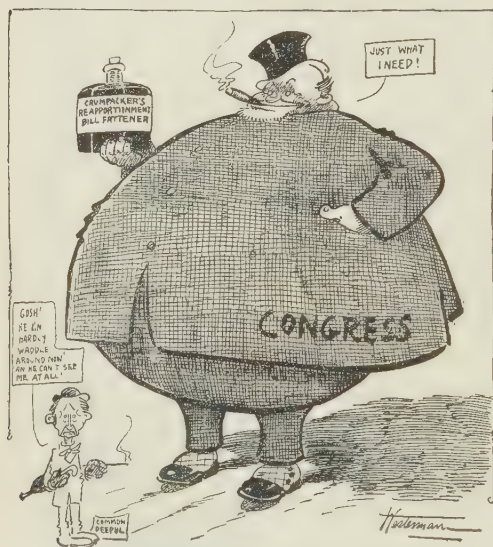


THE SINGERS

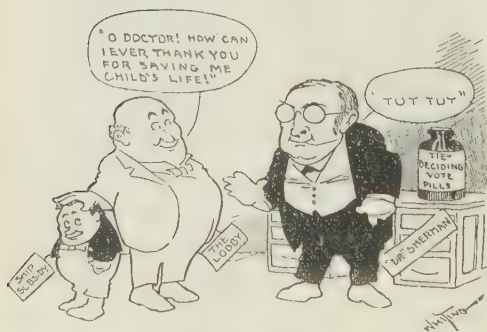
A Reciprocity duet, by President Taft and Sir Wilfrid Laurier
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)



MOVING AROUND TO A TARIFF COMMISSION
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



WHAT HE NEEDS IS REDUCTION ANTI-FAT
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



THE MODEST M. D.
From the *Tribune* (South Bend)

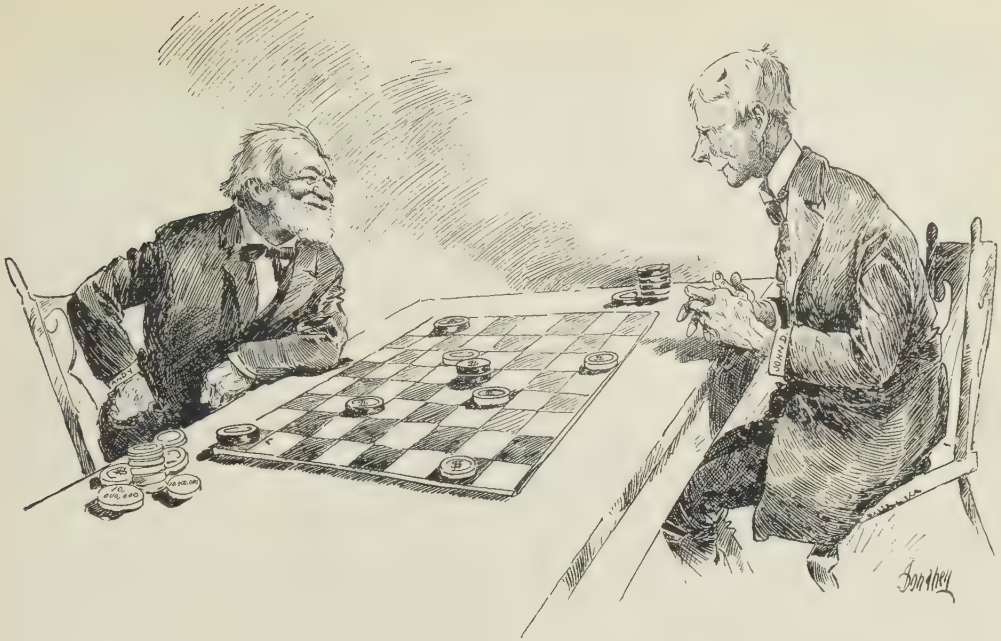


UNCLE SAM WILL GUARD THE CANAL
From the *Post* (Pittsburg)

Fortification, or neutralization,—that has been the question as regards the Panama Canal, the Administration urging the first course, and the peace advocates strongly favoring the second. Last month the Senate passed an ocean mail subvention bill, Vice-President Sherman casting the deciding vote. The cartoon representing a very much enlarged Congress refers to the Crumpacker bill passed by the House, which increases the membership from 391 to 433.



AT LAST
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



MR. CARNEGIE TO MR. ROCKEFELLER: "IT'S YOUR MOVE, JOHN!"
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland)

Mr. Carnegie recently added ten millions of dollars to the fund of the Carnegie Institution at Washington. It is now Mr. Rockefeller's "move," according to the cartoon, if there is any real rivalry in the gift-giving game between these two princely benefactors. The Mt. Wilson Observatory in California, conducted under the supervision of the Carnegie Institution, has been the means of discovering no less than sixty thousand more suns and stars. Count Apponyi, the noted Hungarian peace advocate, has been visiting the United States—hence the cartoonist

couples him with Mr. Carnegie, the great American peace advocate.



PEACE UPON YE!
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)



LOOKING FOR OTHER WORLDS TO CONQUER
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

PORTUGAL'S FIRST PRESIDENT

BY DAVID LAMBUTH

"I BEGAN life as a dreamer. I have always remained more or less of a dreamer. Nevertheless, dreams are, for certain temperaments, a force; at least they keep us from brooding on the miseries of life." So wrote Theophilo Braga, the first President of the Portuguese republic.

In the case of Braga dreams have unquestioningly proven a force of extraordinary magnitude. A republic was his lifelong dream. And he has helped to dream it true. But he dreamed also of a better education, of a wider scope for his energies, even of literary success. The little island forty-one miles long and less than ten wide where he was born had become too small a field for his ambitions and his enthusiasms. At eighteen he left São Miguel for the mainland with a purpose already fixed and with aspirations strangely sure considering the chaos of contemporary Portuguese thought. Going straight to the University of Coimbra, he entered the law course. Then, as now, in Portuguese countries this was the entrance to literary as well as political life. There, while supporting himself by tutoring and translating, he found time not only to attend his classes and follow with the most intense interest the literary movements of the day, but also to pursue investigations of his own, to write articles and even books, and to compose poetry.

This lifelong republican—Joaquim Theophilo Braga—was born on February 24, 1843, in Ponto Delgada, the largest town of São Miguel, the largest island of the Azores, and the grimness of those bald volcanic hills seems to have entered into his blood. His father, an artillery officer in the cause of Don Miguel, the Pretender, when the case became hopeless, betook himself to teaching mathematics and later secured the chair of logic and geometry in the Lyceum of Ponto Delgada. It helps to explain the humanitarian passion of his son to know that, ill paid as he was, and crowded for room, this professor of logic gathered certain of the poorer students into his house and divided his little with them.

At fourteen he set out on his first literary venture, a weekly paper, the *Meteor*, of which he was at once publisher, author, compositor, and newsboy. Soon afterward it became necessary for Theophilo to go into

the typesetting business in good earnest as a means of earning a livelihood, but in his spare hours, which were few enough, he went on with his literary studies, reading widely in history and romance, but more especially in verse, and writing poems which in his sixteenth year (1859) were published as "Folhas Verdes"—"Green Leaves." The verse, it is true, was somewhat halting, the style imitative, the ideas for the most part the poetic banalities of the day, but it was full of vigorous promise. Two years later he entered the university.

In many respects it was a day of inspiration. Victor Hugo, Musset, Michelet, Proudhon, Hegel, Kant—such men were dominating the student thought of Europe. It was a period of metaphysical revolution, of conflict between dogmatic and natural religion, of an immense humanitarian awakening. Hugo and Vigny, he says, taught him that "poetry was not merely a personal thing in which to sing of sorrows and golden hair, but something reaching further, touching even philosophy itself." Recoiling from the university's almost mediæval ideas of literature and science and from the mere pleasure-loving indifference of the students around him, young Theophilo threw himself ardently into the new movement and wrote "The Vision of the Times," a poem that created an immense sensation among the thinking public of Portugal.

The triumph brought some recognition but no money. Theophilo was not for a moment turned from his laborious work. The publication was followed by four others in rapid succession, forming altogether an epic of humanity set forth in a series of what he calls "myths" representing various epochs of historical evolution. In contrast with his "Green Leaves" the ideas are original, the scope large, the strophes sonorous, and through them flashes always a high enthusiasm.

Wrapped in his worn scholastic gown of yellow, with no real patrons and few friends, living in the tiny room he secured in return for his teaching, translating Chateaubriand to feed himself, sometimes subsisting on 60 reis (or about six cents) a day, he faced the opposition that his poems had brought upon him. "There were days when I had nothing

to eat. There were weeks when anything hot was an unwonted luxury."

In 1867 Theophilo Braga graduated in law and the next year took his Doctor's degree with honor. The faculty was minded to offer him a place among them, but the prejudices aroused by his literary revolt, his republicanism and his lack of influential friends made it impossible. He refused to go into the practice of law, but by teaching and writing managed to secure some sort of a living, marrying meanwhile, in 1870, a woman who appears to have been a congenial and appreciative helpmeet. While at the university, Theophilo's study of the development of poetry and history in a somewhat synthetic fashion led naturally to a new phase of interest which dates from the publication, in 1867, of a "History of Portuguese Law" and led him into an extensive study of origins, of folk literature. In addition to other incidental work, he published from 1867 to 1869 a collection of Portuguese ballads in ten volumes, also studies of native romances and Azorian songs. From 1870 to 1880

he was engaged upon his monumental "History of Portuguese Literature," an exhaustive and illuminating collection of facts to a considerable extent new, set forth in a comparative method then unknown in Portugal, and marked with a sureness of critical judgment that placed its author at the head of the literary men of the day in his own country.

In 1871 he was chosen, after much opposition, to the chair of Modern Literature in the so-called Superior Course of Letters in Lisbon. The next year he began the most active and far-reaching work of his career. Comte's "Outline of Positive Philosophy" by accident fell into his hands, and brought

about a complete mental revolution. He set about with infinite labor to rearrange his ideas and to supply certain deficiencies in his knowledge of abstract and natural sciences. At the same time he went on with his lectures and also published in 1876 his "History of Romanticism." Meanwhile he was also getting out an elementary grammar, a "Portuguese Anthology," a "Modern Portuguese Parnassus" and other minor works.

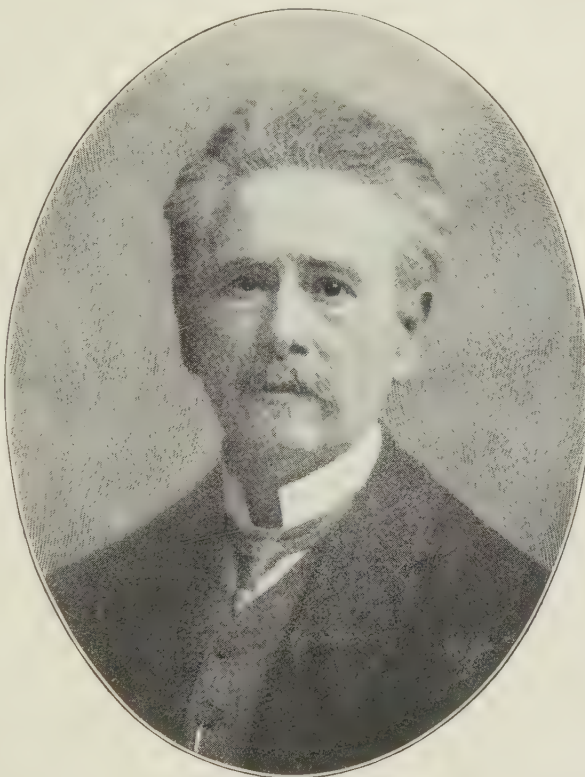
In 1879 he entered the new field publicly with the publication of his "General Outline

of Positive Philosophy," a résumé and exposition of the doctrines of Comte. In the same year came the first volume of his "Universal History," the beginning of a monumental work on applied sociology. His "System of Sociology" followed in 1884, and these books, together with the journal *Positivism*, which he helped to edit, were more responsible than the work of any other man for the tremendous spread of Positivism with its attendant republicanism throughout Portugal and Brazil. Braga by many has been called the father

of two republics. Says Teixeira Bastos, his friend and biographer of these works:

The "Outline" and the "Universal History" are the most notable books in the field of philosophy and sociology that have been written in the Portuguese language, and mark a most significant point in the intellectual development of the country.

From his earliest years Theophilo had written for republican publications. In 1875 he associated himself with a republican group. When the monarchical elements discovered among them created a disturbance, the party was broken up and the sincere republicans were expelled or retired to wait for



PRESIDENT BRAGA, OF THE PORTUGUESE REPUBLIC

better times. Among these was Braga, who kept out of political affairs until 1878, when a new party was formed and he was offered the candidacy for deputy. As a platform he issued a "Demand" for the improvement and guarantee of the franchise and set forth the aspirations of the Federal Republican party: "Liberty of conscience, of teaching, of the press, of worship, of meeting; rights of association, of representation; freedom of election, of industry, of commerce and of contract, and the rights of property." He promised to maintain absolute independence of the monarchical party, to refer proposed legislation to the voters and to give a full account of the legislative transactions to them at the close of every term. Braga himself proposed and developed this program and subsequently refused to swerve from it a tittle. "Principles first of all. Men come and go. Ideas remain eternal and pure." Consequently, it was not until 1910 that he was elected deputy.

Braga soon became the natural, logical leader of the Portugal Republican party. In public gatherings, in political meetings, in scholarly discussions, in republican journals and in the vast numbers of his books he has stood for the cause in season and out with fearless bravery. In his "Dissolution of the Constitutional Monarchical System," published in 1881, he points out unhesitatingly the anachronisms of his old enemies, monarchy and the Roman hierarchy, which he regards as the greatest foes of modern society. In the collection of his articles and speeches entitled "Positivistic Solutions of Portuguese Politics" he lays bare as with a surgeon's knife the facts of the social and political life of the day. They are, perhaps, the most revolutionary books that have appeared in Portugal.

"Theophilo Braga," says Bastos, from whom I have already quoted, "has been nothing less than a revolution in Portuguese society, a revolution in art, a revolution in history, in criticism, in philosophy, in customs, in the formulas of society. And he is also the hope of the nation's future."

Making all allowance for Portuguese exaggeration, there is profound truth in the statement. Forced to be superficial by reason of the extent and haste of his work—he is the author of over 130 books—he has yet thrown himself heroically into the struggle to tear off outworn forms and misleading classifications of the facts of society.

Quiet in manner, modest in dress, temperate in habits, retiring in disposition, yet when principle has been involved Theophilo Braga has proved also a flaming sword. Intellectually and morally it is right and logical that he should be the first Provisional President of the republic. As an executive and a man of action he has proven himself unexpectedly efficient—just how successful remains yet to be seen. He lacks the political expediency that may sometimes be necessary. Yet it may be that the grim determination of the Bragas, their stern honesty, their indomitable purpose, outweighing the perils that beset a man of thought, will carry him through. After all, the life of Theophilo Braga has not been one of passive intellectualism but of militant activity. And then, he has always been "a man of the people."

A few weeks ago I had a conversation with Senhor Luiz de Gonzaga Fernandez Braga, elder brother of Theophilo, who is the proprietor of a pharmacy here in Rio.

The old man of seventy-one leaned toward me over the rail of his counter. There were the same sturdy features, the same deep-set gray eyes, the same long face, made longer in appearance by its white upstanding hair, the same quiet power that has made Theophilo Braga a leader in the intellectual and political revolution of Portugal. As I looked into his eyes I was aware of the family's grim power of clinging tenaciously to a single idea. Theophilo and Gonzaga have been as unwavering democrats as their father was a monarchist and a "Miguelist." Gonzaga, in fact, was compelled to flee to Rio thirty years ago on account of his republican activities in Lisbon.

"I understand," I said, "that Senhor Theophilo first associated himself with the Republicans in 1875. Is that so?"

Senhor Gonzaga looked speculatively at me from under his heavy brows and said nothing. "When did he become a democrat?" I persisted.

The old man laughed, spreading out his hands significantly. "He was always a democrat," he said. "He was a democrat from the day he was born. When he was a boy—a mere chit of a boy—they used to poke fun at the monarchical devotion of his father and say to him: 'Aha, so you are an aristocrat!' And Theophilo would grow red and stamp his foot and shout: 'It isn't so, it isn't so. *Eu sou um homem do povo* (I am a man of the people). So you see, Senhor, he was born with it."

ALFONSO, SPAIN'S MODERN KING

BY IRWIN LESLIE GORDON

THE House of Braganza has fallen. Upon the shattered remains of an enervate monarchy, a few faithful men are slowly welding a permanent, healthy young republic, which has shaken off the fetters of a thousand years of royal tradition, and has settled itself on a substantial foundation of democratic ideals and common sense. The royal escutcheon has waved for the last time over Lisbon, and the descendants of João IV have forever ceased to rule.

When the echo of the shots that whistled through the streets of Lisbon was heard in other lands, the cry was raised "Look at Spain, and see the youthful Bourbon, like his contemporary in Portugal, cast from his throne." Republican and Carlist Spain, enthused with the successes across the frontier, arose from slumber and became active. The nations of Europe looked on and expected momentarily to hear of a republican flag waving over the "Palacio Real" in Madrid. The republican and radical press in Spain ran headlines of treason, and characterized, in bold cartoons, the royal family packing their trunks preparatory to a hasty flight. The overwise Governor of Gibraltar expected a second visitor, but that visitor did not come. The red and yellow flag still waves over Madrid, and the "Marche Nationale" is heard every morning in the barracks from Santander to Cartagena. Europe has gotten over her expectancy, and a certain young king still sits on the throne of his fathers with a tighter grip than he ever before held on the country.

Manuel is forgotten, and the question is now being asked, "Why this delay in founding a republic in Spain?" The calamitists, who howled and pointed their fingers at the Spanish monarchy, have ceased their vituperation; Carlists and republicans in Catalonia are broken-hearted, the Vatican is relieved, and things are quieting down to normal tranquillity in the peninsula.

Looking from without at political condi-

tions in Spain, and not being familiar with the peculiar complexity of the situation, it is impossible for one to understand the recent course of events. In every country, at certain crucial moments, a spirit is manifest which is higher than political controversy and exercises a more potent influence than the workings of the state. This spirit of "personality" has saved monarchical Spain. A



KING ALFONSO CONVERSING WITH A VETERAN OF
THE MOROCCAN WAR

youth, by mere personal influence, by honesty and sincerity, has handled one of the most difficult situations which has confronted any monarch in a decade.

Spain is more republican in her ideals than any other country in continental Europe.

Her history shows this to be true. No country has so fearlessly handled her monarchs, and passed such anti-royal legislation imbued with the spirit of freedom. Yet, no country has slipped from these ideals in such a lamentable manner, because, primarily, of the fickleness of the national character and the inefficiency of Spanish political leaders.

When the dastardly attempt was made on the life of Alfonso and his queen after their marriage, the people began to worship their ruler. They saw in him an ideal, a true descendant of the great Bourbons, and the youthful monarch was placed on the highest pinnacle of popularity. That was six years ago. Extravagance in the royal household, unwise political favoritism, and decidedly English tendencies, slowly lowered the young King from popular favor, while family troubles, and a wholesale housecleaning of the grandees, instigated by the Queen, added to the precariousness of his position. Carlism and republicans in the north plotted and re-plotted, but the firm hand of an able Premier always saved the day.

Queen Victoria, un-Spanish, unsuited by national temperament to reign over a southern people, but with the keen intuition of an Englishwoman, foresaw the imminent danger unless a radically different method of procedure was adopted. With the indomitable spirit which has always characterized her ancestry, she took matters into her own hands. Many and long were the conferences with her husband, and while the world does not know what took place at La Granja, and Santander, the world does know that Alfonso XIII soon became a different man. He traveled and became imbued with the spirit of advancing Europe; he applied himself to departmental details, familiarizing himself with faulty conditions in governmental affairs, which were, in many cases, speedily remedied. The Premier and his cabinet officials soon realized that the former weak and vacillating youth really had ideals and that their measures were not as easily carried through as formerly. Alfonso studied his people. He visited all the provinces of his kingdom. Above all, he abandoned the puerilities which were not only scandalizing Madrid, but all Europe as well. Alfonso became a real king. Victoria was victorious, and Spain to-day can thank that noble woman for the path which has been hewn for the advancement of her government, and the betterment of conditions throughout the country.

These changes occurred about two years ago. Since that time this untried young man

has developed into one of the most capable rulers of Europe. Ministries came and fell, but each situation was handled in a cool and collected manner, which commanded the respect of even his enemies, and the people of the nation. In 1909, the open sore of Spain, the Moroccan situation, again broke out. Troops were hurried into the Riff territory and a sanguinary war began. Barcelona, the hotbed of republicanism, Carlism and anarchism, and kindred creeds that oppose any form of government, arose as a protest against the Moroccan policy and tried to administer an anti-royal and anti-clerical blow. Then it was that Alfonso proved himself to be more than a puppet king. The revolt was speedily terminated by an iron hand. The King declared his intention of going into Morocco, and it was only with the greatest difficulty that the cabinet dissuaded him. The Spanish public, which admires bravery more than any other virtue, enthused with the bold declarations of their young King; the press lauded his spirit, and Alfonso returned with a rush into popular favor.

In the palace in Madrid, amid the pressure of other activities, daily he wrote and mailed dozens of picture post cards to the officers in Morocco. Aside from departmental correspondence, the generals received encouraging letters, commending their services, and expressing regret at his inability to be with them. If a common soldier accomplished a deed of valor he received a letter of thanks from his King. With post cards and letters Alfonso won that war, but, more than a dozen Riffian battles, he won the hearts of officers and men. That was his victory.

Since the Moroccan trouble he has kept in constant touch with the army. The majority of the generals are his personal friends, including Weyler, who is the leader of army affairs in the peninsula. These men are continuously entertained at La Granja, the King's summer home not far from Madrid, and at Santander, where he spends several months each year. His ear is always open to complaints from the ranks of the soldiers, and as a result plots are always nipped in the bud, and the instigators summarily punished. There are a few regiments, however, especially those from the northern and north-eastern provinces, which entertain republican ideals, and, while considerable emphasis has been laid upon them, they are of little moment, as the Minister of War knows each company, and has them stationed in out-of-the-way places, rendering them practically useless in an insurrection. The army as a

whole not only admires but loves its young King, and in this fact, and this fact alone, lies his power. Alfonso is the soldier's ideal.

When Manuel fell in Portugal, Premier Canalejas knew the patriotism of the army, and instantly predicted that no matter what uprisings might occur in Valencia and Catalonia, he could rely on the army as a whole to be loyal. He was right.

The majority of the people in Catalonia and Valencia are rabid anti-royalists, and thousands of the inhabitants of the two Castiles, Estremadura and even Andalusia, sympathize at heart with these principles. The personality of the popular King, however, surmounts this tide of animosity and Alfonso, as he is to-day, is safe on his throne. When he declared he would fight for the monarchy, "Bravos!" were heard from the whole land, and army and people rejoiced. The attention of the ministry was instantly turned to the central point of danger and General Weyler was instructed to suppress riots by the strongest means. The situation in Spain was intensified by the approaching "Ferrer Day." But that day came and went. There were a few republican flags flying along the Rambla in Barcelona, but no disturbances occurred. Barcelonians knew the army was loyal and made no rash movements, nor will they while Weyler is Governor General of the province.

As long as Alfonso sits on the throne, and his actions are as meritorious as they have been during the past year, revolutions may come and go, but the army will not falter. What the next generation will do cannot be predicted. The King's popularity is reflected in the recent passage of the so-called "Padlock Bill" through the Senate, which would have been utterly impossible a year ago. His firm dealings with the Vatican, which have been attributed to Canalejas, bespeak his determination to regenerate Spain, and awake her to the responsibilities and activities of a modern, progressive land.

The King and his ministers fully realize there is one manner in which the monarchy may be terminated, and terminated quickly. That is by assassination. The Spanish people will not tolerate another regency, and it is an accepted fact, that, at the death of the present King, if prior to the attainment of his

majority by the Prince of the Asturias, the country will become a republic. Spain has always suffered under the rule of a regent, and will tolerate it no more, particularly when that regent would be a foreigner, and especially English. Every precaution is being taken to safeguard the King's life, and it is a fact that no monarch in Europe, with the exception of the Czar of Russia, is more closely watched. Alfonso rides only at infrequent intervals through the public streets, and then always accompanied by troops. While the impression is spread abroad that he is fearless and even foolhardy, as a matter of fact he is in mortal fear of his life. When staying at La Granja, his palace in the Guadarrama Mountains, agents watch all trains arriving at Segovia, the nearest railway station, and nearly all strangers are instantly placed under arrest when alighting from the train. The writer and a friend were arrested at that station last year and suffered considerable inconvenience in securing their release. Whenever a railway journey is undertaken guards thoroughly examine the track before the approach of the royal train and agents are placed at every station passed. Queen Victoria is in constant alarm concerning the safety of her husband, and insists that detectives be constantly in attendance. The movements of every known anarchist in the land are carefully watched by the police, and whenever one leaves his city, telegraphic dispatches are sent along the line to watch his movements.

A number of European journals, particularly the French, maintain that the present policy of vigorous anti-clericalism will speedily bring an end to the monarchy. This may be easily answered by the fact that the army as a whole is opposed to the church, and that it unquestionably backs the action of the ministry in this respect.

Looking at the situation in Spain from within, there is not the minutest possibility under present conditions of a republic being established during the lifetime of the present King. Such is the opinion of all Spaniards of the best class, and it is accepted as a fact by the foreign residents of Spain, who are in perhaps the best position to thoroughly understand the complexity of the problem.



PHOTOGRAPHING THE CIVIL WAR

BY HENRY WYSHAM LANIER

[We publish this month two articles in the series already announced, in commemoration of the semi-centennial anniversary of the Civil War. The remarkable photographs used to illustrate this and the following article are from the REVIEW OF REVIEWS' collection gathered for the "Photographic History of the Civil War," a ten-volume work now in press and representing all that the camera recorded, in the years 1861-65, relating to the greatest war in modern history. In the magazine series, following the article by Major Putnam which appears in this number, there will be important contributions by Admiral Chadwick, General Greely, General Rodenbough, Col. W. C. Church, and other Union veterans, while the Confederate side will be represented by Gen. Marcus J. Wright, Col. J. W. Mallet, Capt. J. A. Headley, and Dr. John A. Wyeth.—THE EDITOR.]

EXTRAORDINARY as the fact seems, the American Civil War is the only great war of which we have an adequate history in photographs; that is to say, this is the only conflict of the first magnitude in the world's history that can be really "illustrated," with a pictorial record which is indisputably authentic, vividly illuminating, and the final evidence in any question of detail.

This is a much more important historical fact than the casual reader realizes. The earliest records we have of the human race are purely pictorial. History, even of the most shadowy and legendary sort, goes back hardly more than ten thousand years. But in recent years there have been recovered, in

certain caves of France, scratched and carved bone weapons and rough wall paintings which tell us some dramatic events in the lives of men who lived probably a hundred thousand years before the earliest of those seven strata of ancient Troy which indefatigable archaeologists have exposed to the wondering gaze of the modern world. The picture came long before the written record; nearly all our knowledge of ancient Babylon and Assyria is gleaned from the details left by some picture-maker. And it is still infinitely more effective an appeal. How impossible it is for the average person to get any clear idea of the great struggles which altered the destinies of nations and which occupy so large a portion



PHOTOGRAPHY UNDER FIRE IN 1864—A UNION BATTERY IN FRONT OF

(The story of the taking of this photograph is an adventure in itself. The first attempt provoked the fire of the Confederates, frightening Brady's horse and assistant into a break which upset and destroyed his chemicals. Lieutenant years after, and has recognized several other members of the group—Battery B, First Pennsylvania Light Artillery, known as the "Long Battery." Lieutenant Miller is the second figure from the left. Lieutenant Alcorn is next to the left from Captain Cooper.

of world history! How can a man to-day really understand the Siege of Troy, the battles of Thermopylæ or Salamis, Hannibal's Crossing of the Alps, the famous fight at Tours when Charles "the Hammer" checked the Saracens, the Norman conquest of England, the Hundred Years or Thirty Years Wars,—even our own seven-year struggle for liberty, without any first-hand picture aids to start the imagination? Take the comparatively modern Napoleonic wars where, moreover, there is an exceptional wealth of paintings, drawings, prints, and lithographs by contemporary men: in most cases the effect is simply one of keen disappointment at the painfully evident fact that most of these worthy artists never saw a battle or a camp.

So the statement that there have been gathered together *thousands of photographs* of scenes by land and water during those momentous years of 1861 to 1865 means that for our generation and all succeeding ones the Civil War is on a basis different from all others, is practically an open book to old and young. For when man achieved the photograph he took almost as important a step forward as when he discovered how to make fire: he made scenes and events and personalities immortal. The greatest literary genius might write a volume without giving you so intimate a comprehension of the Battle of the Wilderness as do these exact records, made by ad-

venturous camera men under incredible difficulties, and holding calmly before your eyes the very Reality itself.

To apply this pictorial principle, let us look at one remarkable photograph, "Cooper's Battery in front of the Avery House, during the Siege of Petersburg," of which we have, by a lucky chance, an account from one of the men in the scene. The lifelikeness of the picture is beyond praise: one cannot help living through this tense moment with these men of long ago, and one's eyes instinctively follow their fixed gaze toward the enemy's lines. This picture was shown to Lieut. James A. Gardner (of Battery B, First Pennsylvania Light Artillery), who immediately numbered half a dozen of the figures, adding details of the most intimate interest:

I am, even at this late day, able to pick out and recognize a very large number of the members of our battery, as shown in this photograph. Our battery (familiarily known as Cooper's Battery) belonged to the Fifth Corps, then commanded by Gen. G. K. Warren.

Our corps arrived in front of Petersburg on June 17, 1864, was put into position on the evening of that day, and engaged the Confederate batteries on their line near the Avery House. The enemy at that time was commanded by General Beauregard. That night the enemy fell back to their third line, which then occupied the ridge which you see to the right and front, along where you will notice the chimney (the houses had been burnt down). On the 18th our battery was advanced along with the corps to the position occupied by



PETERSBURG, CAUGHT BY BRADY'S CAMERA AT AN EXCITING MOMENT

federates, who thought that the running forward into position of the artillerists was with hostile intent. Thereupon they James A. Gardner, the prominent figure at the right, with the haversack, has supplied the details of this incident, forty-six as "Cooper's Battery." Capt. James H. Cooper himself leans on his sword at the extreme right of the left section above. Taylor's chimney, along which was the Confederate line, appears to the right of the seated figure on the left)

the battery in this photograph, and engaged the enemy in a battle on the afternoon of that day from the position occupied by the battery in this picture, the enemy then being intrenched along on the ridge to our front, part of which ridge you see in the picture,—the enemy's line being along by the Taylor chimney. On the night of the 18th we threw up the lunettes in front of our guns. This position was occupied by us until possibly about the 23d or the 24th of June, when we were taken farther to the left. The position shown in the picture is about 650 yards in front, and to the right of, the Avery House, and at or near this point was built a permanent fort or battery, which was used continuously during the entire siege of Petersburg.

While occupying this position, Mr. Brady took the photographs, copies of which you have sent me. The photographs were taken in the forenoon of June 21, 1864. We had been engaging the enemy occasionally, but at the time Mr. Brady stopped to take the photographs we were not engaged, but all our cannoners, gunners, and officers took their places, just the same as if they were about to again open up the conflict, and Mr. Brady was getting ready to take the picture. No doubt, the enemy thought we were again preparing to fire, and opened upon us from the ridge in our front (the position from which they fired is not shown in the photograph, being to the left of any position shown). The firing of the enemy caused Mr. Brady's assistant and horse to break to the rear, upsetting and destroying his chemicals. We did not reply to the enemy's fire, and so, afterward, Mr. Brady returned, and we again "stood up to have our pictures taken," as you see.

I know *myself*, merely from the position that I occupied at that time, as gunner. After that, I served as Sergeant, First Sergeant, and First Lieutenant, holding the latter position at the close of the war. All the officers shown in this picture are dead.

We were merely holding the position to which we had advanced, when the enemy fell back on the night of the 17th of June. From this position we occasionally engaged the enemy, but particularly took a very prominent part in the battle of June 18th.

The movement in which we were engaged was the advance of the Army of the Potomac upon Petersburg, being the beginning of operations in front of that city. On June 18th the division of the Confederates which was opposite us was that of Gen. Bushrod R. Johnson; but as the Army of Northern Virginia, under General Lee, began arriving on the evening of June 18th, it would be impossible for me to say who occupied the enemy's lines after that. The enemy's position, which was along on the ridge to the front, in the picture, where you see the chimney, afterward became the main line of the Union Army. Our lines were advanced to that point, and at or about where you see the chimney standing, Fort Morton of the Union line was constructed, and a little farther to the right was Fort Steadman, on the same ridge; and about where the battery now stands, as shown in the picture, was a small fort or works erected, known as Battery Seventeen.

When engaged in action, our men exhibit the same coolness that is shown in the picture,—that is, while loading our guns. If the enemy is engaging us, as soon as a gun is loaded, the cannoners drop to the ground and protect themselves as best they can, except the gunners and the officers, who are expected to be always on the lookout. The gunners are the corporals who sight and direct the firing of the guns.

On the photograph you will notice a person [in civilian's clothes]. This is Mr. Brady or his assistant, but I think it is Mr. Brady himself.

Our battery was part of the division known as the Pennsylvania Reserves, which had for its commanders Generals Reynolds and Meade, and served from the beginning of the war until the close thereof, that is, from June 8, 1861, to June 9, 1865, and participated in twenty-seven engagements.

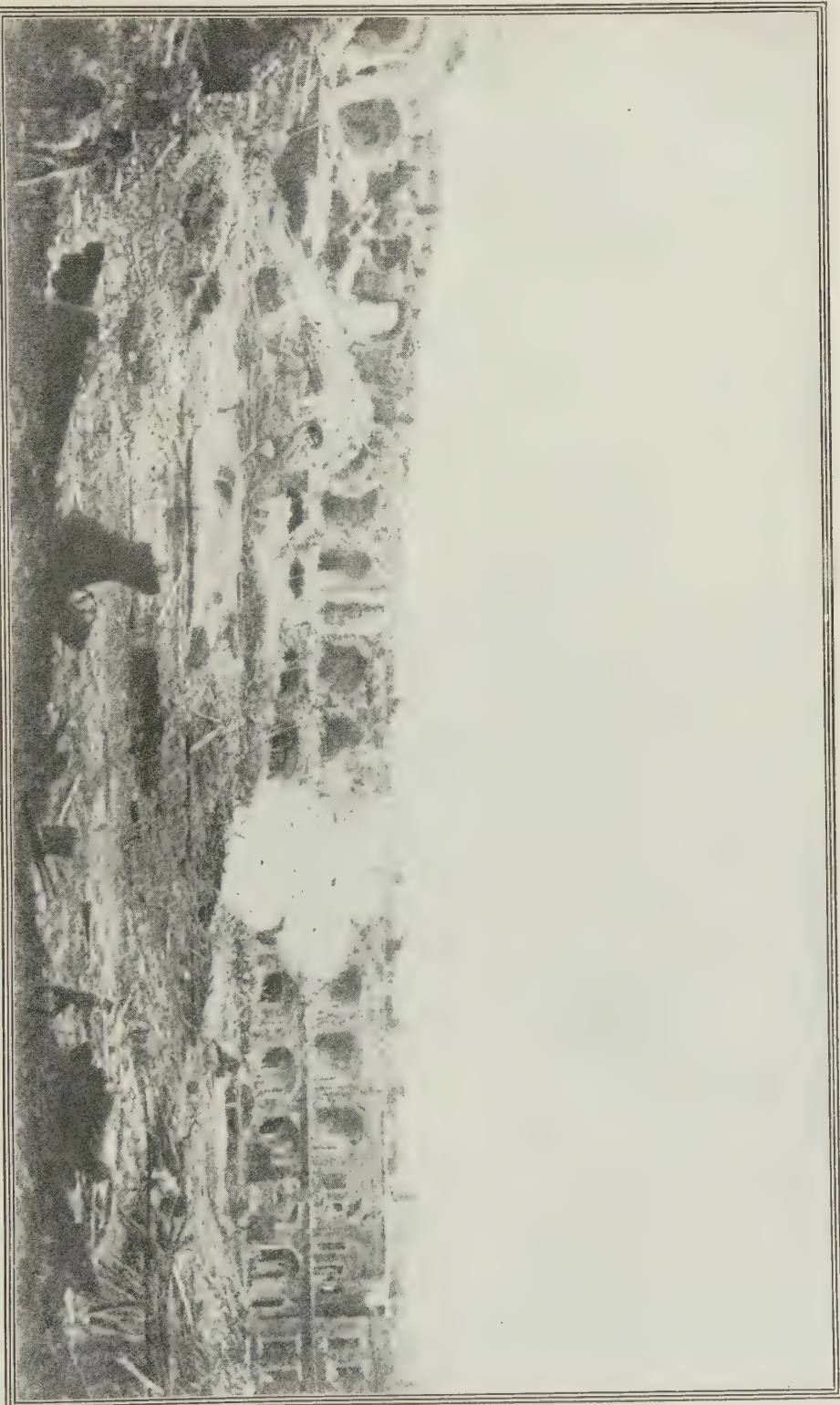
At this late day, now almost forty-seven years since the photographs were taken, I am able to designate at least fifteen persons of our battery, and point them out. I should have said that Mr. Brady took picture No. 1 from a point a little to the left and front of our battery; and the second one was taken a little to the rear and left of the battery. Petersburg lay immediately over the ridge in the front, right past the man whom you see sitting there so leisurely on the earthworks thrown up.

Again, look at the almost incredible photograph by G. S. Cook taken in Fort Sumter on the 8th of September, 1863, while the *Monitor Weehawken*, aground near Cummings' Point, was bombarding the fort. Within the much-battered ruins the Confederate soldiers are scurrying away from their guns while a shell from the *Weehawken* is actually shown exploding. The twentieth-century photographer, with his wonderfully improved paraphernalia, would be put to it to equal this. The later views of eloquent devastation show the resultant chaos with a pair of Confederates amidst the débris; and one may get some idea of what it meant to secure these from the fact that on this occasion the photographer's plate-holder was struck by a piece of shell and knocked into a well.

A notice in *Humphrey's Journal* in 1861 describes vividly the records of the flight after Bull Run secured by the indefatigable Brady. Unfortunately the unique one in which the reviewer identified "Bull Run" Russell in reverse action seems lost to the world. But we have the portrait of Brady himself three days later, in his famous linen duster, as he returned to Washington. His story comes from one who had it from his own lips:

He [Brady] had watched the ebb and flow of the battle on that Sunday morning in July, 1861, and seen now the success of the green Federal troops under General McDowell in the field, and now the stubborn defense of the green troops under that General Jackson who thereby earned the sobriquet of "Stonewall." At last Johnston, who with Beauregard and Jackson, was a Confederate commander, strengthened by reinforcements, descended upon the rear of the Union troops and drove them into a retreat which rapidly turned to a rout.

The plucky photographer was forced along with the rest; and as night fell he lost his way in the thick woods which were not far from the little stream that gave the battle its name. He was clad

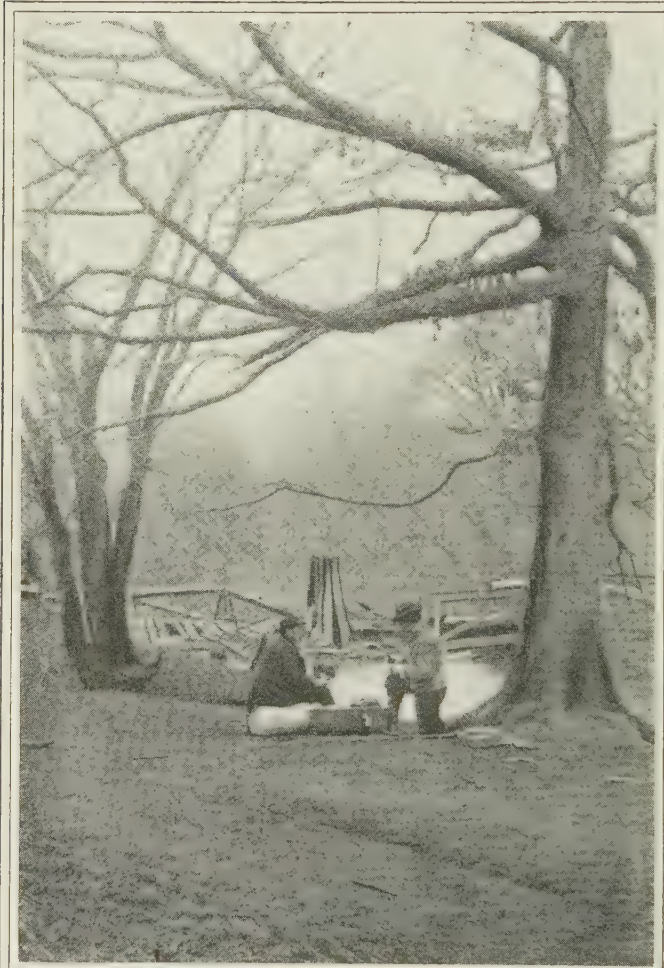


SHELL FROM A UNION GUNBOAT EXPLODING IN FORT SUMTER ON SEPTEMBER 8, 1863

(This photograph—owned by the Daughters of the Confederacy of Charleston, S. C.—and the taking of it by G. S. Cook, are fully described in Johnson's "Defense of Charleston Harbor")

in the linen duster which was a familiar sight to those who saw him taking his pictures during that campaign, and was by no means prepared for a night in the open. He was unarmed as well, and had nothing with which to defend himself from any of the victorious Confederates who might happen his way, until one of the famous company of "Fire" Zouaves, of the Union forces, gave him succor in the shape of a broadsword. This he strapped about his waist and it was still there when he finally made his way to Washington three days later. He was a sight to behold after his wanderings, but he had come through unscathed, as it was his fate to do so frequently afterward.

Things were different when the next year saw dread Bellona again swoop down upon Bull Run, and the lucky photographers had time and safety on August 30, just before the battle, in which to take a peaceful picture of themselves and their outfit above the destroyed railroad bridge at Blackburn's Ford.



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CAMERA MEN ON THE SECOND BULL RUN (MANASSAS) BATTLE-FIELD, JUST BEFORE THE BATTLE OF AUGUST, 1862

Much water had flowed under other bridges than this in that twelvemonth!

Instances might be multiplied indefinitely, but here is one more evidence of the quality of this pictorial record. The same narrator had from Brady a tale of a picture made a year and a half later, at the Battle of Fredericksburg. He says:

Burnside, then in command of the Army of the Potomac, was preparing to cross the Rappahannock, and Longstreet and Jackson, commanding the Confederate forces, were fortifying the hills back of the right bank of that river. Brady, desiring as usual to be in the thick of things, undertook to make some pictures from the left bank. He placed cameras in position and got his men to work, but suddenly found himself taking a part very different from that of a noncombatant. In the bright sunshine his bulky cameras gleamed like guns, and the Confederate marksmen thought that a battery was being placed in position. They promptly opened fire, and Brady found himself the target for a good many bullets. It was only his phenomenal good luck that allowed him to escape without injury either to himself and men or to his apparatus.

It is clearly worth while to study for a few moments this man Brady, who was so ready to risk his life for the idea by which he was obsessed. While the movement soon went far beyond what he or any other one man could possibly have compassed, so that he is probably directly responsible for only a fraction of the whole vast collection of pictures in these volumes, he may fairly be said to have fathered the movement; and his daring and success undoubtedly stimulated and inspired the small army of men all over the war region whose hitherto unrelated work has been laboriously gathered.

Mathew B. Brady was born at Cork, Ireland (not in New Hampshire as is generally stated), about 1823.¹ Arriving in New York as a boy, he got a job in the great establishment of A. T. Stewart, first of the merchant princes of that day. The

¹ Acknowledgment is due to Charles E. Fairman, of Washington, for many of the biographical details about Brady which immediately follow.

youngster's good qualities were so conspicuous that his large-minded employer made it possible for him to take a trip abroad at the age of fifteen, under the charge of S. F. B. Morse, who was then laboring at his epoch-making development of the telegraph.

Naturally enough, this scientist took his young companion to the laboratory of the already famous Daguerre, whose arduous experiments in making pictures by sunlight were just approaching fruition; and the wonderful discovery which young Brady's receptive eyes then beheld was destined to determine his whole life work.

For that very year (1839) Daguerre made his "daguerreotype" known to the world; and Brady's keen interest was intensified when in 1840, on his own side of the ocean, Professor Draper produced the first photographic portrait the world had yet seen, a likeness of his sister, which required the amazingly short exposure of *only ninety seconds!*

But Brady himself shortly became one of the little group of men who took up the new art and successfully adapted it to commercial uses. It is hard for us to realize to-day that a single lifetime measures the entire history of photography.

Brady's natural business sense and his mercantile training showed him the chance for a career which this new invention opened, and it was but a short time before he had a gallery on Broadway and was well launched upon the new trade of furnishing daguerreotype portraits to all comers. He was successful from the start; in 1851 his work took a prize at the London World's Fair; about the same time he opened an office in Washington; in the fifties he

brought over Alexander Gardner, an expert in the new revolutionary wet-plate process, which gave a negative furnishing many prints instead of one unduplicatable original; and in the twenty years between his start and the Civil War he became the fashionable photographer of his day—as is evidenced not only by the superb collection of notable people whose portraits he gathered, but by

Bret Harte's classic verse (from "Her Letter"):

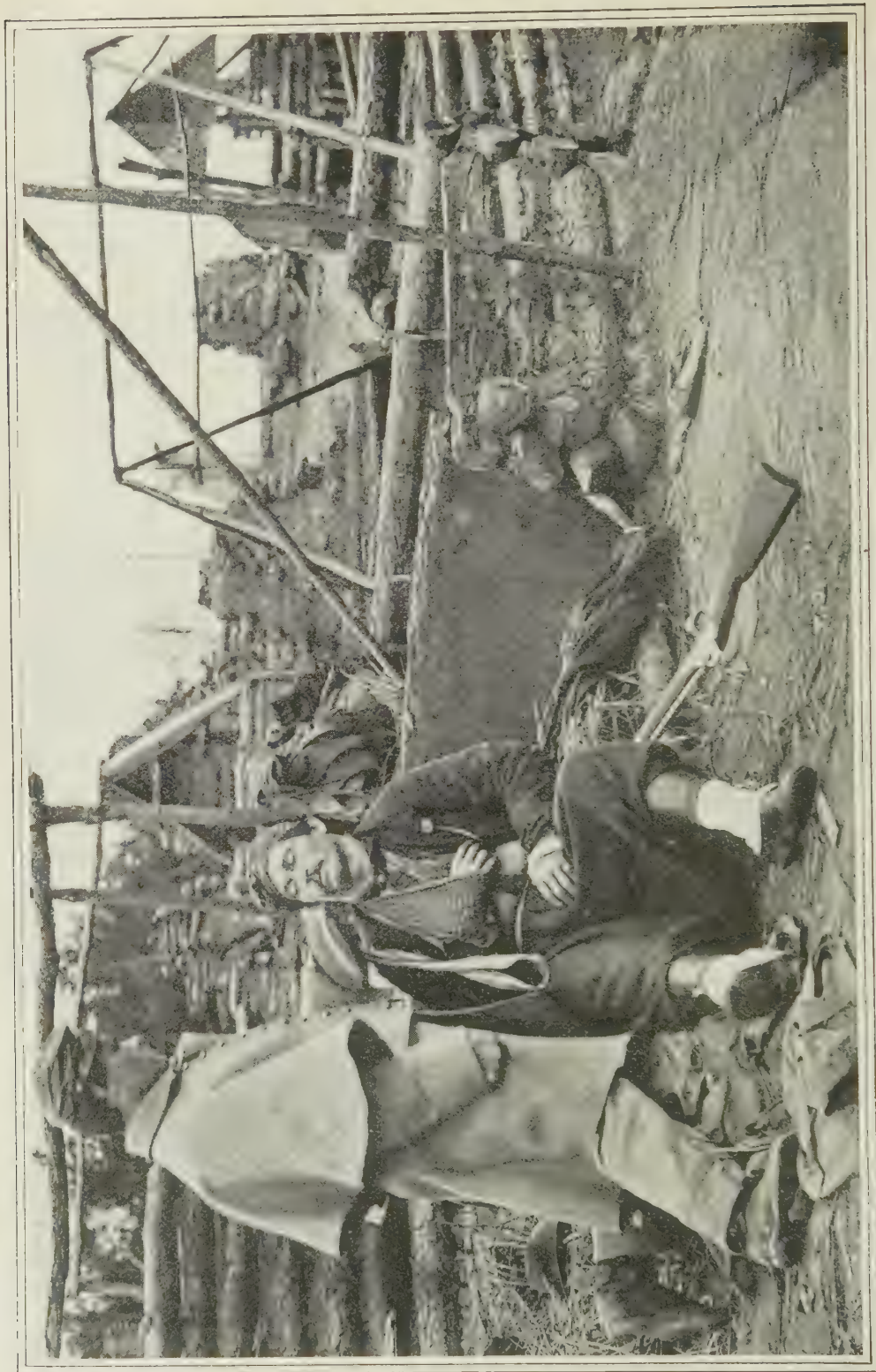
Well, yes—if you saw us
out driving
Each day in the Park,
four-in-hand—
If you saw poor dear
mamma contriving
To look supernaturally
grand,—
If you saw papa's pic-
ture, as taken
By Brady, and tinted
at that,—
You'd never suspect he
sold bacon
And flour at Póverty
Flat.



MATHEW B. BRADY, THE WAR-TIME PHOTOGRAPHER
(This photograph was taken on Mr. Brady's return from
the first battle of Bull Run)

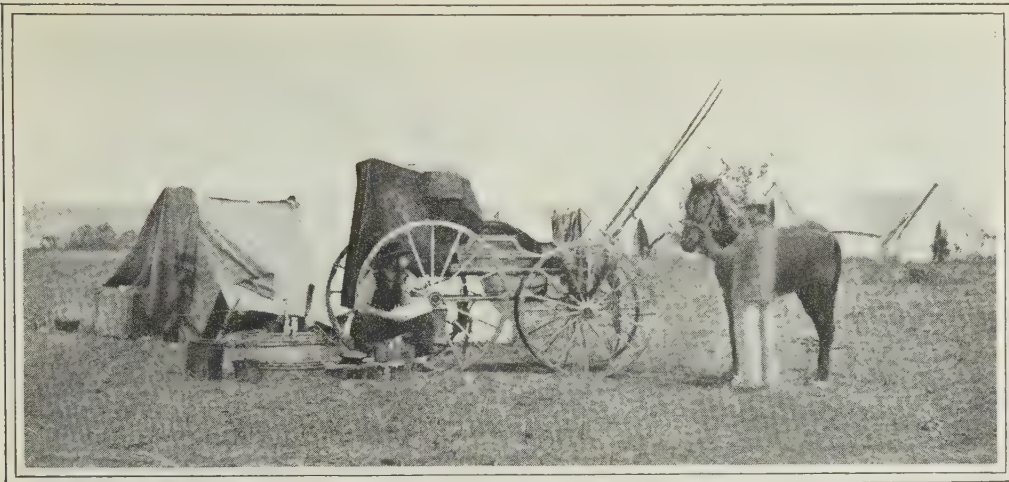
Upon this sunny period of prosperity the Civil War broke in 1861. Brady had made portraits of scores of the men who leaped into still greater prominence as leaders in the terrible struggle; and his vigorous enthusiasm saw in this fierce drama an opportunity to win even brighter laurels. His energy and his acquaintance with men in authority overcame every obstacle, and he succeeded in interesting President Lincoln, Secretary Stanton, General Grant, and

Allan Pinkerton to such an extent that he obtained the protection of the Secret Service, and permits to make photographs at the front. Everything had to be done at his own expense, but with entire confidence he equipped his men, and set out himself as well, giving instructions to guard against breakage by making two negatives of everything, and infusing into all his own ambition to astonish the world by this unheard-of feat.



THE WOUNDED SOLDIER

(It took a real artist to see the picture possibilities of this everyday war-time scene, composed here with such skill that it has an instant appeal to the sympathy of every eye; in this permanent quality the photograph is worthy of a place beside the paintings of the best genre artists)



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PHOTOGRAPHER'S HEADQUARTERS AT COLD HARBOR

(The soldiers called the dark tent and photographic equipment Brady's "what-is-it." The camera on the battle field a half-century ago was quite as much a curiosity as many of the photographs are to later generations. Thus were the pictures of a bloody battle field taken. Gen. T. W. Hyde writes in his description of the battle of Cold Harbor: "On getting back to our headquarters I found an enterprising photographer was taking a picture of them and the staff." This is typical of the work of Brady)

We shall get some more glimpses presently of these adventurous souls in action. But as already hinted, extraordinary as were the results of Brady's impetuous vigor, he was but one of many in the great work of picturing the war. Three-fourths of the scenes with the Army of the Potomac were made by Gardner; Thomas G. Roche was an indefatigable worker in the armies' train; Captain A. T. Russell took an invaluable series of the military railroads and of miscellaneous landscapes; Sam A. Cooley was attached to the 10th Army Corps, U. S. Vols., and recorded the happenings around Savannah, Fort McAllister, Jacksonville, St. Augustine, Beaufort, and Charleston during the bombardment; George M. Barnard, under the supervision of Gen. O. M. Poe (then Captain of the Engineer Corps), did yeoman's service around Atlanta; S. R. Siebert was very busy indeed at Charleston in 1865; Cook of Charleston, Davies of Richmond, and other unknown men on the Confederate side, working under even greater difficulties (Cook, for instance, had to secure his chemicals from Anthony in New York—who also supplied Brady—and smuggle them through) did their part in the vast labor; and many another unknown, including the makers of the little *carte de visites*, contributed to the panorama which to-day unfolds itself before the reader. There are contemporary comments on the first crop of war photographs—which confirm several

points already made. *Humphrey's Journal* in September, 1861, contained the following:

PHOTOGRAPHS OF WAR SCENES

The public are indebted to Brady, of Broadway, for numerous excellent views of "grim-visaged war." He has been in Virginia with his camera, and many and spirited are the pictures he has taken. His are the only reliable records of the flight at Bull's Run. The correspondents of the rebel newspapers are sheer falsifiers, the correspondents of the Northern journals are not to be depended upon, and the correspondents of the English press are all together more than either; but Brady never misrepresents. He is to the campaigns of the republic what Vandermeulen was to the wars of Louis XIV. His pictures, though perhaps not so lasting as the battle pieces on the pyramids, will not the less immortalize those introduced in them.

Brady has shown more pluck than many of the officers and soldiers who were in the fight. He went—not exactly like the "Sixty-Ninth," stripped to the pants—but with his sleeves tucked up and his big camera directed upon every point of interest on the field. Some pretend, indeed, that it was this mysterious and formidable-looking instrument that produced the panic! The runaways, it is said, mistook it for the great steam gun discharging 500 balls a minute, and incontinently took to their heels when they got within its focus! However this may be, it is certain they did not get away from Brady as easily as they did from the enemy. He has fixed the cowards beyond the possibility of a doubt.

Foremost among them the observer will perhaps notice the well-known correspondent of the *London Times*; the man who was celebrated for writing graphic letters when there was nobody by to contradict him, but who has proved by his



A NOTABLE PORTRAIT GROUP OF NOTABLE SOLDIERS

(There are few camera artists to-day, in spite of all our boasted-about photographic progress, who could improve on this collection of strong portraits, full of character, alive forever in this impressive group. Reading from left to right: Major Generals O. O. Howard, John A. Logan, W. B. Hazen, William T. Sherman, Jeff. C. Davis, H. W. Slocum, and J. A. Mower)



RUINS OF THE STATE ARMORY AT COLUMBIA, S. C., BURNED AS SHERMAN'S TROOPS MARCHED THROUGH, IN FEBRUARY, 1865.

(Photographer Wearn's dark-room buggy, like Brady's "what-is-it," in the foreground. The photograph has been preserved by the University of South Carolina)



THE WAR PHOTOGRAPHER IN '64 IN THE TRENCHES AT ATLANTA

(Barnard, the Government photographer under Col. E. M. Poe, in September, 1864. Chemicals and developing tent were carried to the very trenches by Brady and his associates in these early days of photography. The plate was sensitized in a light-proof tent before it was exposed and then developed immediately under similar conditions. Here in the middle background began the battle of Atlanta, where Hood in his first sortie attacked the Army of the Tennessee. This was General McPherson's battle ground of July 22, 1864)

correspondence from this country that but little confidence can be placed in his accounts. See him as he flies for dear life with his notes sticking out of his pockets, spurring his wretched-looking steed, his hat gone, and himself the picture of abject despair.

But, joking aside, this collection is the most curious and interesting you have ever seen. The groupings of entire regiments and divisions, within a space of a couple of feet square, present some of the most curious effects as yet produced by photography. Considering the circumstances under which they were taken, amidst the excitement, the rapid movements, and the smoke of the battlefield, there is nothing to compare with them in their powerful contents of light and shade.

And in the next issue, one sees the idea developing which made possible the present books:

PHOTOGRAPHS OF WAR SERIES

Among the portraits in Brady's selection, spoken of in our last number, are those of many leading generals and colonels—McClellan, McDowell, Heintzelman, Burnside, Wood, Corcoran, Slocum, and others. Of the larger groups, the most effective are those of the army passing through Fairfax village, the battery of the 1st Rhode Island regiment at Camp Sprague, the 71st Regiment (New York) formed in hollow square at the Navy Yard, the Engineer Corps of the New York Twelfth at Camp Anderson, Zouaves on the lookout from the belfry of Fairfax Court House, etc., etc.

Mr. Brady intends to take other photographic scenes of the localities of our army and of battle

scenes, and his collection will undoubtedly prove to be the most interesting ever yet exhibited. But why should he monopolize this department? We have plenty of other artists as good as he is. What a field would there be for Anthony's instantaneous views and for stereoscopic pictures. Let other artists exhibit a little of Mr. Brady's enterprise and furnish the public with more views. There are numerous photographers close by the stirring scenes, which are being daily enacted, and now is the time for them to distinguish themselves.

We have seen how far Brady came from "monopolizing" the field. And surely the sum total of achievement is triumphant enough to share among all who had any hand in it.

And now let us try to get some idea of the problem which confronted these enthusiasts, and see how they tackled it.

Imagine what it must have meant even to get to the scene of action—with cumbersome tent and apparatus, and a couple of hundred glass plates whose breakage meant failure; over unspeakable back-country roads or no roads at all; with the continual chance of being picked off by some scouting sharpshooter or captured through some shift of the armies. I have witnessed the harassed efforts of a distinguished nature photographer to get his plates safely into the Newfoundland wilderness in quest of salmon and caribou, and I am lost in admiration of the skill and patience



A LIFELIKE GLIMPSE OF THE WAR REGION

(A waterfall and a horse about to drink are subjects for which the modern camera man wants a focal-plane shutter and other appliances undreamed of when the picture was taken)



A HORSE THAT WILL LIVE ALWAYS

(One wants to rub this fine charger's glossy neck. It's difficult enough under the most favorable circumstances to get the satiny texture of a horse's skin, the play of muscles, definition of eyes and head. Considering the equipment the photographer had, this is a triumph. It was taken a few days after Antietam. The rider is Lt.-Col. C. B. Norton, at Gen. FitzJohn Porter's headquarters)

which the war-time men must have put into this one matter of transportation.

The first sight of the queer-looking wagon caused amazement, speculation, derision. "What is it?" became so inevitable a greeting that to this day if one asks a group of soldiers about war photographs, they will exclaim simultaneously: "Oh, yes, the what-is-it wagon!" It became a familiar sight, yet the novelty of its awkward mystery never quite wore off.

Having arrived, and having faced the real perils generally attendant upon reaching the scenes of keenest interest, our camera adventurer was but through the overture of his troubles. The most advanced photography of that day was the wet-plate method, by which the plates had to be coated in the dark (which meant in this case carrying everywhere a smothery, light-proof tent), *exposed within five minutes*, and developed within five minutes more! For the benefit of photographic amateurs and to show the trying nature of the work, here is a statement of the "collodion" process which was employed—on battlefields, mind you, and in all sorts of weather conditions:

The photographer first immersed eighty grains of cotton-wool in a mixture of one ounce each of

nitric and sulphuric acids for fifteen seconds, washing them in running water. The pyroxylin was dissolved in a mixture of equal parts of sulphuric ether and absolute alcohol. This solution gave him the ordinary collodion to which he added iodide of potassium and a little potassium bromide. He then poured the iodized collodion on a clean piece of sheet glass and allowed two or three minutes for the film to set. The coated plate was taken into a "dark room," which he carried with him, and immersed for about a minute in a bath of thirty grains of silver nitrate to every ounce of water. The plate was now sensitive to white light and must be placed immediately in the camera and exposed and developed within five minutes to get good results, especially in the South during the summer months. It was returned to the dark room at once and developed by pouring over it a mixture of water, one ounce; acetic acid, one dram; pyrogallol acid, three grains, and "fixed" by soaking in a strong solution of hyposulphite of soda or cyanide of potassium.

Fortunately the picture men occasionally immortalized one another as well as the combatants, so that we have a number of intimate glimpses of their life and methods. In one, the wagon, chemicals and camera are in the very trenches at Atlanta; and they tell more than pages of description. But, naturally, they cannot show the arduous labor, the narrow escapes, the omnipresent obstacles which could be overcome only by the keenest ardor and determination. The epic of the war



WORTHY OF A GREAT ARTIST'S BRUSH

(It took a "seeing eye" to pick out this precise glimpse of the earthworks at this fort commanding the James River, between Petersburg and Richmond. The contrast between the charming view of the river, with the flanking trees, and the grim preparation for a hostile approach is most dramatic.)

photographer is still to be written. It would compare favorably with the story of many battles. And it does not require much imagination, after viewing the results obtained in the face of such conditions, to get a fair measure of these indomitable workers.

The story of the way in which these pictures have been rescued from obscurity is almost as romantic a tale as that of their making. The net result of Brady's efforts was the securing of over 7000 pictures (two negatives of each in most cases); and the expenditure involved, estimated at \$100,000, ruined him. One set, after undergoing the most extraordinary vicissitudes, finally passed into the Government's possession, where it is now held with a prohibition against its use for commercial purposes. (The \$25,000 tardily voted to Mr. Brady by Congress did not retrieve his financial fortunes, and he died in the nineties, in a New York hospital, poor and almost forgotten.)

The duplicate negatives passed in the '70's into the possession of Anthony, in default of payment of his bills for photographic supplies. They were kicked about from pillar to post, until John C. Taylor, ten years later, found them in an attic and bought them; from this they became the backbone of the Ordway-Rand collection; and in 1895 Brady himself had no idea what had become of them. Many were broken, lost, or destroyed by fire. Finally the treasure was discovered and appreciated by Edward Bailey Eaton, of Hartford, Conn., who as a publisher created the immediate train of events that leads to their present publication and to their importance as the nucleus of a collection of many thousand pictures gathered from all over the country to furnish the material for this history.

From all sorts of sources, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Maine to the Gulf, these hidden treasures have been drawn. His-

torical societies, Government bureaus, librarians, private collectors, old soldiers and their families have recollected, upon earnest insistence, that they did have such things or once knew of them. Singly and in groups they have come out of archives, safes, old garrets, from walls, often seeing the light of day for the first time in a generation, to join together once more in a pictorial army which daily grew more irresistible as the new arrivals augmented, supplemented and explained. The superb result is here spread forth and illuminated for posterity.

Apart from all the above considerations, these invaluable pictures are well worth attention from the standpoint of pictorial art. We talk a great deal nowadays about the astonishing advances of our modern art photographers; and it is quite true that patient investigators have immeasurably increased the range and flexibility of camera methods and results: we now manipulate negative and print to produce any sort of effect; we print in tint or color, omitting or adding what we wish; numberless men of artistic capacity are daily showing how to transmit personal feeling through the intricacies of the mechanical process. But it is just as true as when the caveman scratched on a bone his

recollections of mammoth and reindeer, that the artist will produce work which moves the beholder, no matter how crude may be his implements. And clearly there were artists among these Civil War photographers.

Probably this was caused by natural selection: it took ardor and zest for this particular thing above all others to keep a man at it in face of the hardships and disheartening handicaps. In any case, the work speaks for itself. Over and over one is thrilled by a sympathetic realization that the vanished man who pointed the camera at some particular scene, must have felt precisely the same pleasure in a telling composition of landscape; in a lifelike grouping, in a dramatic glimpse of a battery in action, in a genre study of a wounded soldier watched over by a comrade—that we feel to-day and that some seeing eye will respond to, generations in the future. This is the true immortality of art. And when the emotions thus aroused center about a struggle which determined the destiny of a great nation, the picture that arouses them takes its proper place as an important factor in that heritage of the past which gives us to-day increased stature over all past ages, just because we add all their experience to our own.



A PICTURESQUE GROUP OF SOLDIERS AROUND THE SUTLER'S STORE

(Few things in portrait photography are so difficult as securing a lifelike group of any size. Not only are these portraits admirable, but the poses are remarkably diversified and the light and shadow are handled very successfully in creating color contrasts)

THE CIVIL WAR FIFTY YEARS AFTER

A VETERAN'S EXPERIENCES AS RECALLED BY BATTLE FIELD PICTURES

BY GEORGE HAVEN PUTNAM

(Major 176th New York Volunteer Infantry)

TIS fifty years since. The words recall the opening sentence of Scott's famous romance, "Waverley," and Scott's reference, like my own, had to do with the strenuous years of civil war.

To one examining the unique series of photographs which were secured, during the campaigns of our great war, by the pluck and persistence of men like Brady and the negatives of which have, almost miraculously, been preserved through the vicissitudes of half a century, comes, however, the feeling that these battles and marchings were the events not of fifty years back, but of yesterday, if not, indeed, things of to-day. These vivid pictures bring past history into the present tense; the observer sees our citizen soldiers as they camped, as they marched, and as they fought, and comes to know how they lived and how they died. There are revealed to the eye through these lifelike photographs, as if through a vitascope, the successive scenes of the great life-and-death drama of the nation's struggle for existence, a struggle which was fought out through four strenuous years, and in which were sacrificed of the best manhood of the country, North and South, eight hundred thousand lives.

In September, 1862, I landed in New York from the Bremen steamer *Hansa*, which was then making its first transatlantic trip. I had left my German university for the purpose of enlisting in the army, and, with the belief that the war could hardly be prolonged for many months further, I had secured leave of absence from the university only for the college year. I have to-day a vivid recollection of the impression made upon the young student by the war atmosphere in which he found his home city. In coming up from the steamship pier, I found myself on Broadway near the office of the *Herald*, at that time at the corner of Ann Street. The bulletin board was surrounded by a crowd of anxious citizens, whose excitement was so tense that it expressed itself, not in utterance, but in silence. With some difficulty, I made my

way near enough to the building to get a glimpse of the announcement on the board. The heading was: "A battle is now going on in Maryland; it is hoped that General McClellan will drive Lee's army back into the Potomac."

I recall to-day the curious impressiveness of the present tense, of the report of a battle that was actually "going on." To one who reads such an announcement, all things seem to be possible, and as I stood surrounded by men whose pulses were throbbing with the keenest of emotions, I felt with them as if we could almost hear the sound of the cannon on the Potomac. The contrast was the stronger to one coming from the quiet lecture rooms of a distant university to the streets of a great city excited with twelve months of war, and with the ever-present doubt as to what the hours of each day might bring forth.

The fight that was then "going on" is known in history as the Battle of Antietam.

A fresh and vivid impression of the scene of the bloody struggle at Antietam Creek is given in one of the photographs in this great war series. The plucky photographer has succeeded in securing, from the very edge of the battlefield, a view of the movements of the troops that are on the charge, and when, on the further edge of the fields, we actually see the smoke of the long lines of rifles by which that charge is to be repulsed, we feel as if the battle were again "going on" before our eyes, and we find ourselves again infused with mingled dread and expectation as to the result.

In looking at the photographs, the Union veteran recalls the fierce charge of Burnside's men for the possession of the bridge and the sturdy resistance made by the regiments of Longstreet. He will grieve with the Army of the Potomac and with the country at the untimely death of the old hero, General Mansfield; he will recall the graphic description given by the poet Holmes of the weary week's search through the battlefield and the environs for the "body" of his son, the young captain, who lived to become one of the



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A PORTION OF THE FIELD OF ANTIETAM ON THE DAY OF THE BATTLE (ARTILLERY ON THE LEFT)

scholarly members of the national Supreme Court; and he may share the disappointment not only of the army, but of the citizens back of the army, that, notwithstanding his advantages of position, and the fact that for forty-eight hours he held in his hands, in captured despatches, the record of the actual positions of Lee's forces, McClellan should have permitted the Confederate army to withdraw without molestation, carrying with it its trains, its artillery, and even its captured prisoners.

These vivid photographs which constitute the great historic series bring again into the present tense for the memories of the veterans all of the dramatic scenes of the years of war; and even to those who are not veterans, those who have grown up in years of peace and to whom the campaigns of half a century back are but historic pages or dim stories, even to them must come, in looking at these pictures of campaigns, these vivid episodes of life and death, a clearer realization than could be secured in any other way of what the four years' struggle meant for their fathers and their grandfathers.

THE DEFENSE OF THE CAPITAL

The fine views of fort and camp near Washington recall the several periods in which

to the continuing anxieties of the people's leader was added immediate apprehension as to the safety of the national capital. On the 19th of April, 1861, the Massachusetts Sixth, on its way to the protection of Washington, had been attacked in Baltimore, and connections between Washington and the North were cut off. A few hundred loyal troops represented all the forces that the nation had for the moment been able to place in position for the protection of the capital.

I have stood, as thousands of visitors have stood, in Lincoln's old study, the windows of which overlook the Potomac; and I have had recalled to mind the vision of his tall figure and sad face as he stood looking across the river where the picket lines of the Virginia troops could be traced by the smoke, and dreading from morning to morning the approach of these troops over the long bridge. There must have come to Lincoln during these anxious days the dread that he was to be the last President of the United States, and that the torch, representing the life of the nation, that had been transmitted to him by the faltering hands of his predecessor Buchanan, was to expire while he was still responsible for the continuity of the flame.

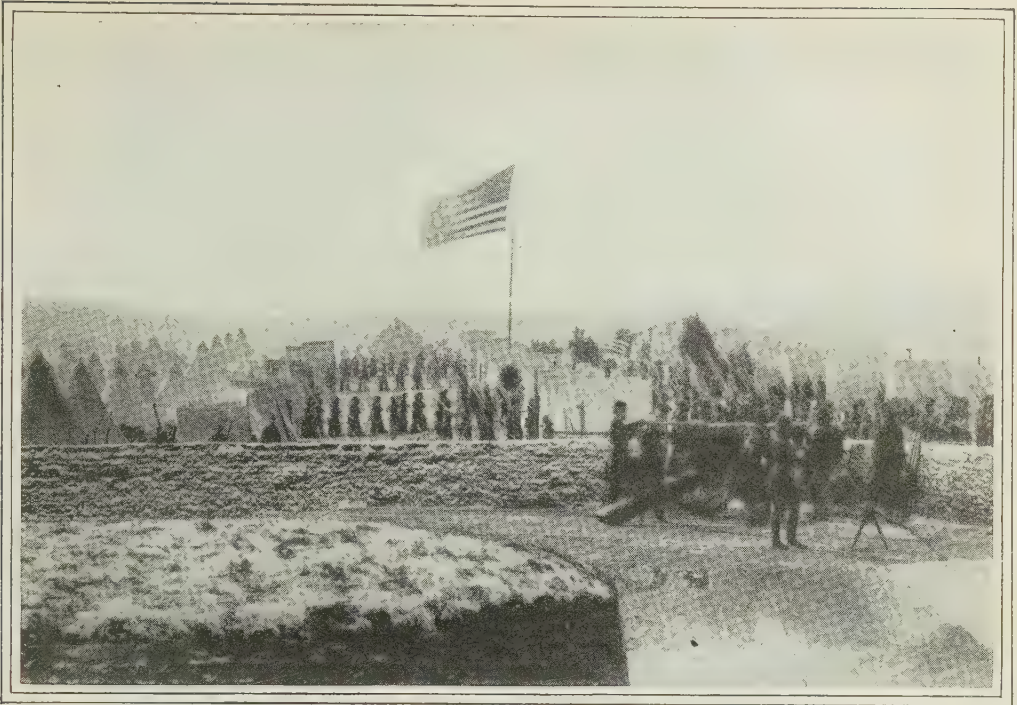
And it was not only in 1861 that the capital was imperiled. The anxiety of the President (never for himself, but only for his



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FORT LINCOLN, ONE OF THE DEFENSES OF WASHINGTON

(Company H of the Third Massachusetts Artillery)



CAMP OF THE 142d PENNSYLVANIA, NEAR WASHINGTON

country and his responsibilities) was to be renewed in July, 1863, when Lee was in Maryland, and in July, 1864, at the time of Early's raid. It was during Early's hurried attack that Lincoln, visiting Fort Stevens, came into direct view of the fighting by which Early's men were finally repulsed. For the President, the war must indeed at this time have been something in the present tense, something which meant dread possibilities always impending.

THE BATTLE OF THE CENTURY

The month of July, 1863, marked the turning point of the great contest. If the Federal lines had been broken at Gettysburg, Lee would have been able, in placing his army across the highways to Baltimore and to Philadelphia, to isolate Washington from the North. The Army of the Potomac would, of course, have had to be reconstituted; and Lee would finally have been driven across the Potomac as he was actually compelled to retire after the decision of the battle. But such a check to the efforts of the North, after two years of war for the maintenance of the nation, would in all probability have secured success for the efforts of the Confederate sympathizers in Europe and

have brought about recognition and intervention on the part of France and of England. Such an intervention would have meant the triumph of the Confederacy and the breaking up of the great Republic. The value for the cause of the success of Meade in repelling, with heavy loss, the final assaults of Lee was further emphasized by a great triumph in the West. On the very day on which Lee's discomfited army was making its way back to the Potomac, the troops of General Grant were placing the Stars and Stripes over the well-defended works of Vicksburg.

In the series of photographs are included several characteristic views of the Gettysburg field. A beautiful little picture recalls the sharp fight that was made on the second of July for the possession of Little Round Top. It was the foresight of General Warren that recognized the essential importance of this position for the maintenance of the Union line. After the repulse of Sickles' Third Corps in the Peach Orchard, Longstreet's men were actually on their way to take possession of the rocky hill from which the left and rear of the Union line could have been enfiladed. No Union force was for the moment available for the defense, but Warren, with two or three aides, raised some flags over the rocks, and the leader of Longstreet's ad-



GETTYSBURG—SCENE ON LITTLE ROUND TOP IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE BATTLE

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THREE CONFEDERATE PRISONERS AT GETTYSBURG

vance, getting an impression that the position was occupied, delayed a brief time for reinforcements.

WARREN'S PLUCKY STAND

This momentary respite gave time for Warren to bring to the defense of the hill troops from the nearest command that was available, a division of the Fifth Corps. A few minutes later, came the first attack, followed by a series of fierce onsets that continued through the long summer afternoon. With some advantages of position, and with the realization that the control of the hill was absolutely essential for the maintenance of our line, the Federals held their own; but when darkness fell, the rocks of Devil's Den and the slopes of the hill were thickly strewn with dead, the bodies of the Blue and the Gray lying closely intermingled. The beautiful statue of Warren now stands on Little Round Top at the point where, almost single-handed, he placed his flag when there were no guns behind it. The General is looking out gravely over the slope and toward the opposite crest, where have been placed, in grim contrast to the smiling fields of the quiet farm behind, the Confederate field guns that mark Longstreet's position.

THE RIVER GUNBOATS

The editors have fortunately been able to include with the great Brady series of army photographs a private collection, probably unique, of more than four hundred views of the gunboats on the rivers of the West. Each of these vessels represents a history of its own. One wishes for the imagination of a Homer which could present with due effectiveness a new "catalogue of the ships."

Admiral Farragut, while accepting the armored vessels as possessing certain advantages and as apparently a necessity of "modern warfare," had the impatience of the old-fashioned sailor against any such attempt at protection. He preferred for himself the old type of wooden frigate of which his flagship, the famous *Hartford*, was the representative. "Why," said he, "if a shell strikes the side of the *Hartford* it goes clean through. Unless somebody happens to be directly in the path, there is no damage, excepting a couple of easily plugged holes. But when a shell makes its way into one of those 'damned tea-kettles,' it can't get out again. It sputters round inside doing all kinds of mischief." It must be borne in mind, apart from the natural exaggeration of such an utterance, that Farragut was speaking half a century ago, in the

time of slow-velocity missiles. His phrase "damned tea-kettles" came, however, to be the general descriptive term for the ironclads, applied not only by the men in the ranks but by the naval chaps themselves.

There were assured advantages given by the armor in time of action against most of the fire that was possible with the weapons of the day, but for the midsummer climate of Louisiana, the "tea-kettles" were most abominable abiding places. During the day, the iron of the decks would get so hot that the hand could barely rest upon it. At night, sleep was impossible. The decks were kept wetted down, and the men lay on deck, getting, toward the morning hours when the hulls had cooled down, such sleep as could be secured.

COTTON FOR ARMOR

Another memory recalls, one of the armored transports making its way up the Red River under fire from the shore. The steepness of the banks on the Red River gave peculiar advantages for such fire, as it was frequently the case that the guns of the boats could not be elevated so as to reach the enemy's position. It was difficult to protect the man at the wheel from such plunging fire, but bales of cotton were often placed around the upper works which were sufficient to head off at least musketry fire. This improvised armor proved, however, not only insufficient but a peril when the enterprising Confederate gunners succeeded in discharging from their field-pieces red-hot shot. It happened more than once (I recall witnessing one such incident) that the cotton was brought into flames by such shot and it became necessary to run the vessel ashore.

CAVALRY AND THE FLEET

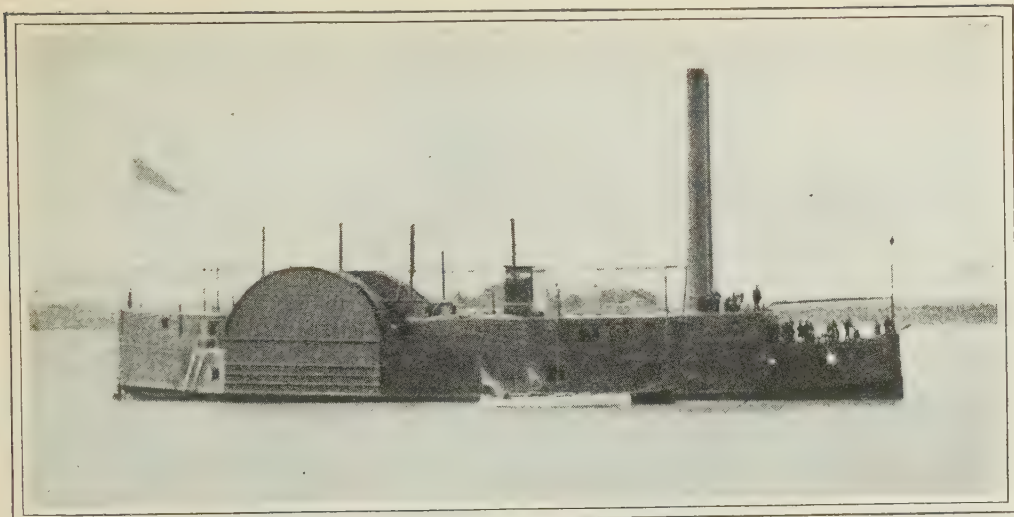
A well-taken photograph of the *Lexington*, the smallest vessel in Porter's fleet, recalls a dramatic incident in the passage of the Red River. This little vessel came very near being captured by cavalry. After the action at Sabine Cross-Roads (in April, 1864), the *Lexington* was leading the fleet on the way down the river. A rifle fire was directed upon her decks from the Confederate skirmishers on the shore. At one point, the river widened out and the channel meandered through an open stretch of comparatively shallow water. As the *Lexington* reached this open stretch, the man at the wheel (who had been replaced once or twice during the

trip) was struck by a well-directed shot from the bank. The little vessel turned sidewise to the current and grounded bow and stern across the narrow channel. A squad of Confederate cavalry, led by General Green and ex-Governor Mouton, seized the opportunity for a brilliant coup. They rode out through the shallows, the water being up to the shoulders of their horses, keeping up such a sharp fire that the decks of the gunboat had to be abandoned. The cavalry reached the edge of the channel and it seemed for a moment as if they would be able to get on board and take possession of the vessel. If their attempt had been successful, the vessel would have been sunk where she lay and the channel would have been blocked. The next vessel in the column was still above the point waiting, until by the movement of the smoke from the stacks of the *Lexington* it could be known that the channel was clear. The men on the gunboat finally succeeded in bringing to bear a gun from below, and a volley of shrapnel killed General Green. Discouraged by the death of their leader, the cavalry turned back to the bank. The Yankee gunners again took possession of the deck and the wheel-house, and getting out their stilts (long poles fastened by swinging bolts to the side of the vessel) they succeeded, although still under a sharp fire, in pushing the bows of the vessel around and getting her again under way.

THE RED RIVER DAM, APRIL, 1864

A photograph in the series which presents a picturesque view of the famous Red River Dam recalls some active spring days in Louisiana. The photograph gives an excellently accurate view of a portion of the dam, through the building of which Admiral Porter's river fleet of eleven "turtles" was brought safely over the rapids, and the army of General Banks, repulsed and disappointed but by no means demoralized, was able to make its way back to the Mississippi with a very much lessened opposition. Through a sudden fall of the river, the "turtles" had been held above the rapids at Alexandria. Without the aid of Porter's guns to protect the flank of the army retreating along the river road, it would have been necessary to overcome by frontal attacks a series of breast-works by which this road was blocked.

The energetic Confederate leader, General Taylor, had managed to cut off all connections with the Mississippi, and, while we were feeding in the town of Alexandria the women and children whose men folks were fighting us



THE GUNBOAT "LEXINGTON," WHICH NARROWLY ESCAPED CAPTURE BY CONFEDERATE CAVALRY ON THE RED RIVER

from outside, we had rations sufficient for only about three weeks. The problem was, within the time at our disposal and with the material available (in a country in which there was no stone), to increase the depth of water on the rapids by about twenty-two inches. The plan submitted by the clever engineer officer, Lieut.-Colonel Bailey, of the Fourth Wisconsin, was eagerly accepted by General Banks. Under Bailey's directions, five wing-dams were constructed, of which the shortest pair, with the widest aperture for the water, was upstream, while the longest pair, with the narrowest passage for the water, was placed at the point on the rapids where the increased depth was required. The water was thrown, as it were, into a funnel, and not only was the depth secured, but the rush downward helped to carry the vessels in safety across the rocks of the rapids. As I look at the photograph, I recall the fatiguing labor of "house breaking," when the troops were put to work, in details on alternate days, in pulling down the sugar mills and in breaking up the iron work and the bricks.

On the further side of the river, a territory claimed by the sharpshooters of our opponents, men selected from the Western regiments, protected more or less by our skirmish line, are applying their axes to the shaping of the logs for the crates from which the dams were constructed. The wood-chopping is being done under a scattered but active fire, but while hastened somewhat in speed, it loses none of its precision.

I recall the tall form of the big six-footer

Colonel Bailey leading the way into the water where the men had to work in the swift current at the adjustment of the crates, and calling out, "Come along, boys; it's only up to your waists."

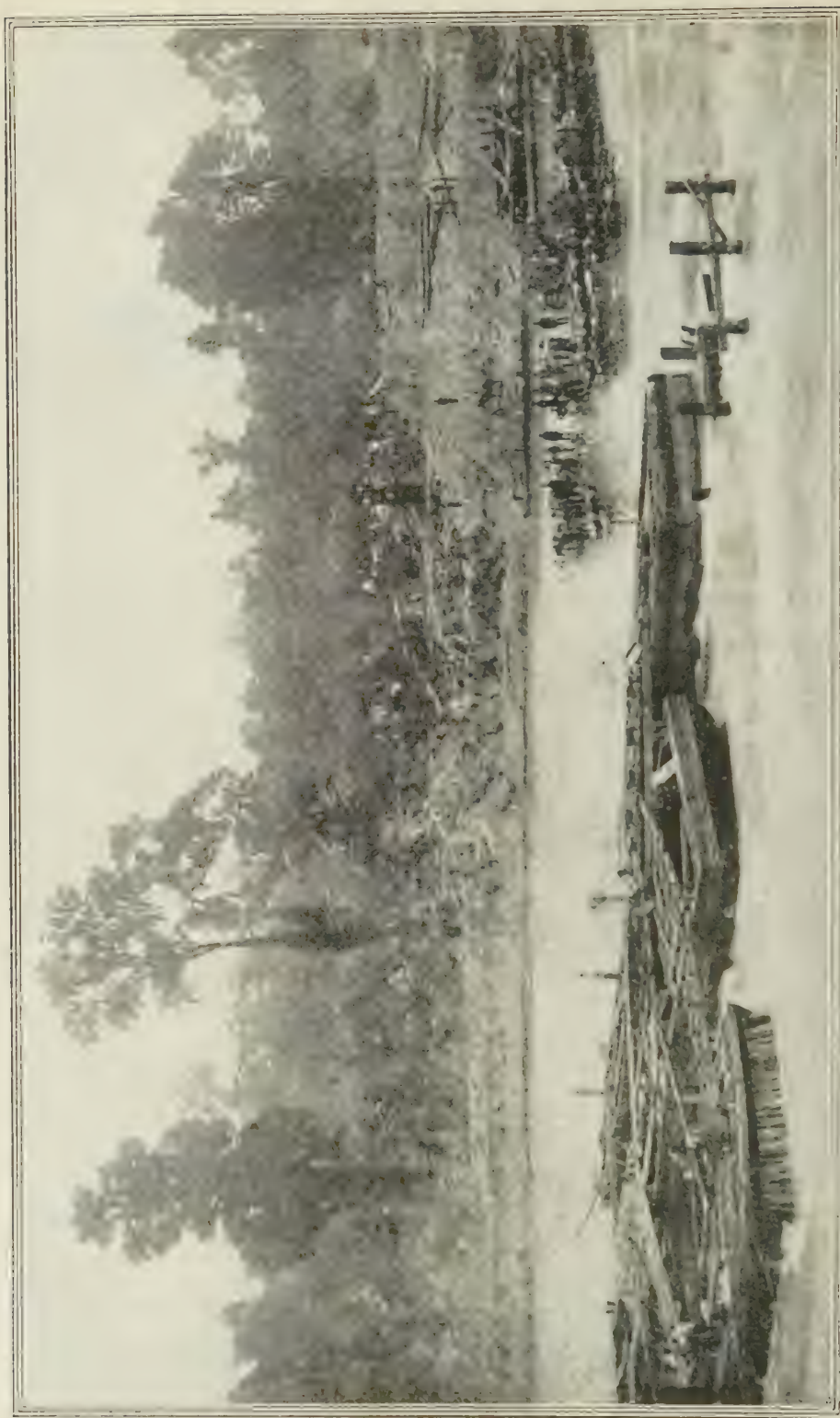
As in duty bound, I marched after the Colonel into the river, calling upon my command to follow; but the water which had not gone very much above the waist of the tall Colonel, caught the small Adjutant somewhere above the nostrils, with the result that he was taken down over the rapids. He came up, with no particular damage, in the pool beyond, but in reporting for the second time, wet but still ready for service, he took the liberty of saying to the Wisconsin six-footer, "Colonel, that was hardly fair for us little fellows."

After the hot work of tearing down the sugar mills, the service in the cool water, although itself arduous enough, was refreshing. The dams were completed within the necessary time, and the vessels were brought safely through the rapids into the deep water below.

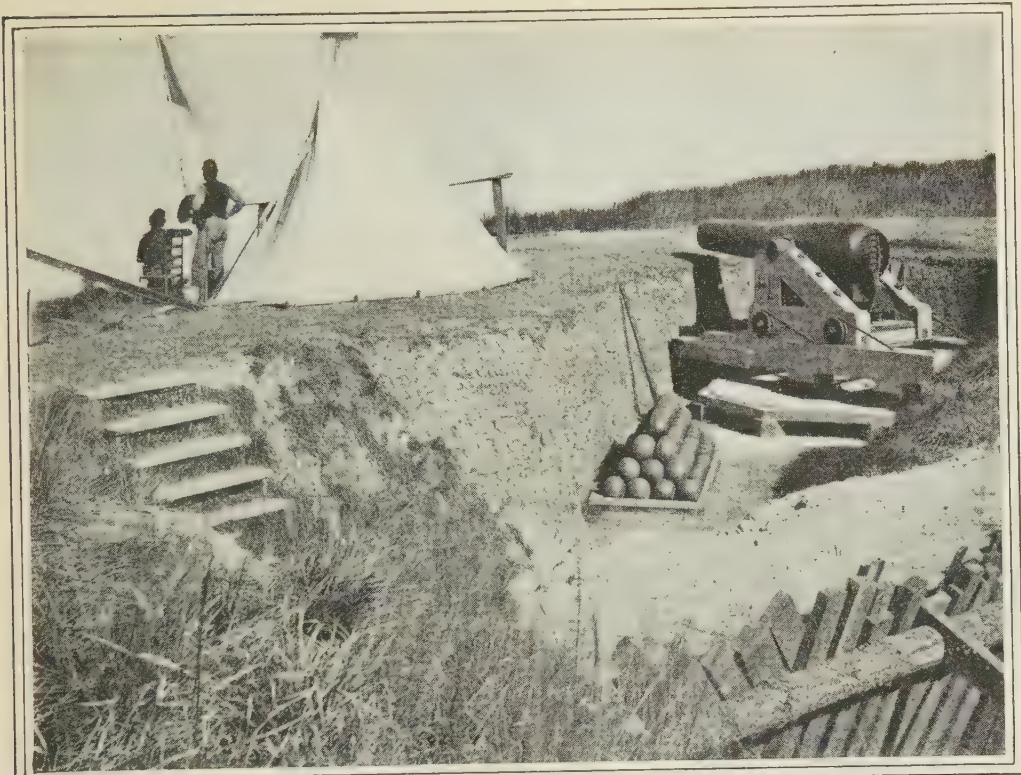
The saving of the fleet was one of the most dramatic incidents of the war, and the method of operation, as well as the whole effect of the river scene, are admirably indicated in the cleverly taken photographs.

FORT MCALLISTER, 1864

The view of Fort McAllister recalls a closing incident of Sherman's dramatic march from Atlanta to the sea. The veterans had for weeks been tramping, with an occasional



ONE OF THE MOST DRAMATIC INCIDENTS OF THE WAR, SAVING THE RED RIVER FLEET OF GUNBOATS BY DAMMING THE STREAM
(The work was performed by the troops under the direction of Colonel Bailey of the Fourth Wisconsin)



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INTERIOR VIEW OF FORT McALLISTER, GEORGIA, WHICH OPPOSED SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA

interval of fighting, but with very little opportunity for what the boys called a square meal. By the time the advance had reached the line of the coast, the commissary wagons were practically empty. The soldiers had for days been dependent upon the scattered supplies that could be picked up by the foraging parties and the foragers, working in a country that had been already exhausted by the demands of the retreating Confederates, gave hardly enough return, in the form of corn on the cob or an occasional razor-backed hog, to offset the "wear and tear of the shoe-leather."

The men in the division of General Hazen, which was the first command to reach the Savannah River, could see down the river the smoke of the Yankee gunboats and of the transports which were bringing from New York, under appointment made months back by General Sherman, the much-needed supplies. But between the boys and the food lay the grim earthworks of Fort McAllister. Before there could be any eating, it was necessary to do a little more fighting. The question came from the commander to General Hazen, "Can your boys

take those works?" and the answer was in substance:

"Ain't we jest obleeged to take them?"

The assault was made under the immediate inspection of General Sherman, who realized the importance of getting at once into connection with the fleet, and the general was properly appreciative of the energy and neatness with which the task was executed.

"See my Bummers," said old Sherman with most illigant emotion.

"Ain't their heads as horizontal as the bosom of the ocean?"

The raising of Old Glory over the fort was the signal for the steaming up-stream of the supply ships, and that evening witnessed for the advance division a glorious banquet, with real beef and soft bread.

The following day, which happened to be the 25th of December, General Sherman was able to report to President Lincoln that he had secured for him, or for the nation, a Christmas present in the shape of the city of Savannah.

THE WAR CORRESPONDENT

A picturesque photograph in the series gives a group of war correspondents at the front. The war could, doubtless, have been fought through without the aid of correspondents, and some of our generals were of opinion that their movements could have been managed more successfully, because with more secrecy, if they could have felt assured that information was not going to their opponents by way of the New York papers. These same generals felt not infrequently also that there would have been a wider freedom of action if their movements and the management of their responsibilities could have been directed solely with reference to the approval or criticism of their superiors instead of being made the text for more or less misleading newspaper leaders. There was doubtless ground for such annoyance on the part of General Sherman and other of the military opponents of the correspondents. There can, however, be no question as to the skill, enterprise and courage with which was conducted the work

of these representatives of the press. They incurred, in pressing their way to the scene of active operations, and in making their observations, and in scribbling their reports actually under fire (see, for instance, the vivid portrait of the correspondent on the field of Gettysburg), practically all the perils that came upon the soldier himself.

Not a few of these plucky newspaper men fell on the field of battle, while others, like Richardson of the *Tribune*, endured long terms of imprisonment. It is certain that without the clever and often dramatic work of these newspaper writers, the citizens at home would have known much less than they did know then, and their successors would know much less to-day, about the actual happenings of the campaigns. It was necessary also that the people at home, who were finding supplies for the armies and paying the taxes under which the armies were supported, should be furnished with information as to what the men at the front were doing. It may safely be concluded that on the whole a great debt was due to the American war correspondent.



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"SHERMAN'S BUMMERS"—A FEDERAL PICKET POST NEAR ATLANTA

“SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT” IN BUSINESS

BY A. W. SHAW

(Editor and publisher of *System*)

THE much-discussed “Scientific Management,” reduced to simple terms, is a particular form of industrial management that develops the individual worker to the highest state of efficiency and of prosperity and at the same time secures greater prosperity for the factory owner by getting his product made at the lowest possible cost.

Its principles have been slowly but accurately formulated by Frederick W. Taylor, the first investigator in the field of industrial management whose work may rightly be termed scientific.

Literally, with a stopwatch, scales, and a tape, Mr. Taylor timed the various routine operations of the workmen in the great steel plants of Pennsylvania, in one of which he was successively laborer, foreman, chief engineer, general manager. He measured distances that men and materials traversed, and gradually evolved the theory that a large percentage of both labor and material was needlessly wasted,—often as high as 60 or 80 per cent. in a single department,—through improper supervision and direction. Through changes which he effected he materially reduced the time in which these operations were done. By a comparison of figures he expressed the economies which his methods effected in specific terms of minutes, cents, and ounces. Upon these terms as a basis, he constructed a plan of scientific shop management that he described in a paper which he read before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers at the June meeting of 1903. That date properly marks the beginning of the present movement to establish industrial management as a profession subject to scientific laws.

A CENTRAL “PLANNING” DEPARTMENT

Practical illustrations of the efficiency of Mr. Taylor’s principles of scientific business management are found in numerous institutions, but an especially good example is furnished by the Tabor Manufacturing Company, whose factory in Philadelphia is, in its

physical aspects, in no way conspicuous among the other manufactories in the district where it is located. But in its method of handling men and materials it has become notable because of the contrast between its present productiveness and that of five years ago, before the modern methods were adopted.

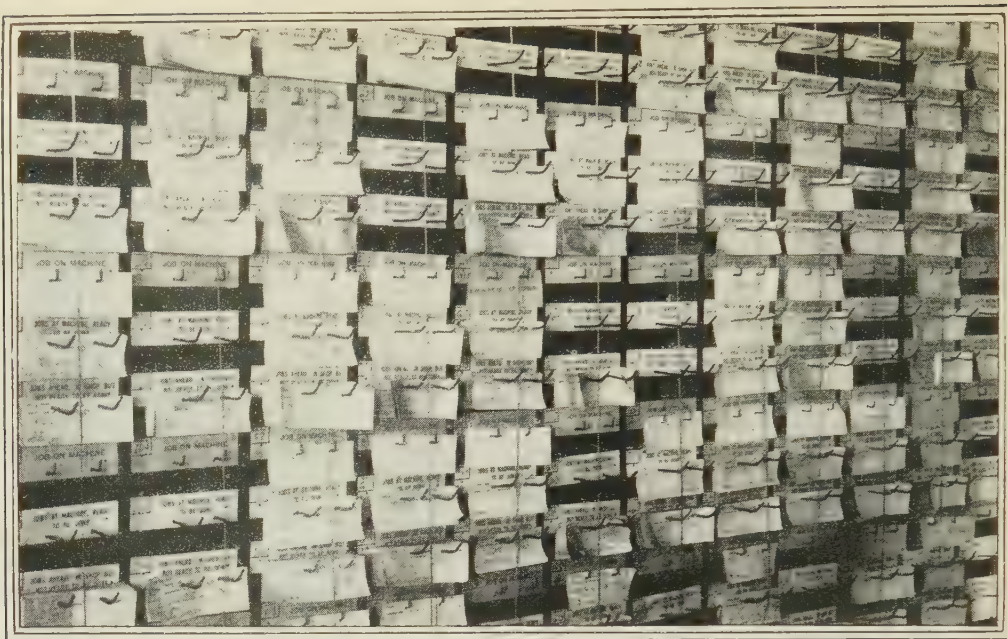
At that time the company employed about a hundred men in its shop and only two or three men in its office. Under the present system of management, it employs less than seventy men in the shops and nearly thirty in the office. Yet the present output, with a shop force over a third less than formerly, exceeds the former output by over 300 per cent.

One of the basic principles of the Taylor system is embodied in the “planning” department, where the work of the entire plant is mapped out and distributed among the various departments. This system not only relieves the workman of the task of planning out his own duties and establishes the one best way of performing them, but more particularly, it enables him to concentrate his entire energies on his production, upon which his compensation (which is adjusted on a sliding scale by the bonus system) is dependent.

CHARTING EVERY STAGE OF A GIVEN JOB

This planning department is to a business house what the “staff” is to the army. It is the department in which the various problems of manufacture are analyzed by especially trained executives and in which the many elements are distributed and the duties of each smaller unit defined and supervised, in much the same manner as the officers of the “staff” draw up the plans of the military campaigns in which the soldiers of the “line” do the actual physical work of fighting.

In the Tabor plant the activities of the planning department, upon the acceptance of each order, are first expressed in a “route chart” that is practically the working plan of that job. Blue-print copies of it are furnished to each department which it affects. On it are indicated, by a system of symbols,



THE "SHOP BOARD," BY WHICH THE PLANNING DEPARTMENT OF THE FACTORY ASSIGNS JOBS TO EACH WORKMAN AND RECORDS THEIR PROGRESS

(Each workman is represented by three hooks, the first of which bears the record ticket of the "job on machine," the second the tickets of the "jobs at machine ready to be done," and the third, the tickets of the "jobs in shop but not ready to be done." In this way delays in the workrooms are entirely eliminated)

what raw material will be required, what part may be secured from the stock on hand, what tools will be needed and all data that have a direct bearing upon the fulfillment of that order.

The sequence in which the various operations should be begun are so carefully planned that under normal conditions the various parts that enter into the final make-up of the product reach the assembling room at exactly the same time or at such intervals as they may be required. No time is lost anywhere along the line through delays.

WHAT IT MEANS TO THE INDIVIDUAL WORKMAN

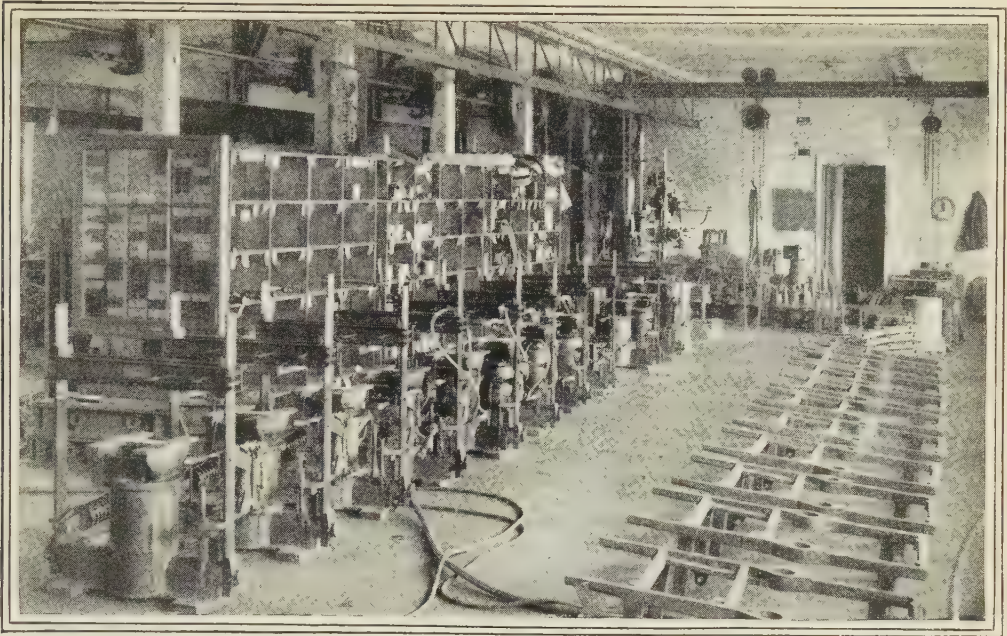
Another fundamental principle of Scientific Management is the standardization not alone of the production of each department as a whole, but also of the most minute operations of the individual workman. In the Tabor shop, for example, blue-print instruction cards are furnished to each workman upon the issuance of each job. These cards show the exact order in which each operation must be done, the exact method by which it must be done, and the time in which each detailed step should be completed by the average workman.

To facilitate the reckoning of time, a special ten-hour clock has been adopted with the time units divided on the decimal system. This clock is started simultaneously in each department upon the beginning of the working day.

If the instructions are carried out exactly as stipulated in the schedule, the workman produces a specified amount of work in a ten-hour period and is entitled to a fixed compensation, which includes a bonus of 35 per cent. or an equivalent to pay for $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours of work. If he produces this amount of work in less than ten hours, he is entitled not only to his full compensation, including the bonus, but is further enabled to undertake other jobs on the time thus saved and to receive further compensation that increases proportionately to his output.

This instruction card thus becomes to the worker at the machine what the "bogie" score is to a golf player; it establishes a standard and the bonus furnishes an incentive to excel it.

On the "shop board" is kept a complete record of the work that is being done in every shop department. It consists of a bulletin approximately ten feet long and three feet high, to which are attached the work cards of



THE "ASSEMBLING ROOM" OF A FACTORY, WHERE THE SEVERAL JOBS SCHEDULED ON THE "SHOP BOARD" ARE RECEIVED WHEN COMPLETED

(Each order received at the factory is so carefully "routed" and distributed to the departments that the various parts reach this "assembling room" at the same time, or at such intervals as they are required. In the bins at the left, each marked by the order number, the small stock parts are placed in the order in which they are needed)

each employee, designated by his number. Each employee is represented by three hooks. On the first is hung the card that indicates the job on which he is at present working; on the second are hung from two to six cards representing jobs that must receive attention immediately following, and on the third are hung as many job tickets as have been assigned to that workman, ranging as high as a dozen or two. As the workman completes each piece of work, he reports to the planning department, which makes a record of the bonus, if any, that is due him. He then secures from the shop board the next job that has been assigned to him. By thus mapping out each employee's daily tasks, the company keeps the shop work in constant activity and permits each worker to apply his maximum effort to the task for which he is trained and upon which his value both to himself and to his company is based.

So profitable has this system proved to the worker as well as to the company that during the strike period of last year, when employees in the adjoining shops quit work and used every effort to induce the employees of other plants to walk out, the Tabor Company did not lose a man.

While Mr. Taylor was investigating with

such extreme thoroughness industrial workmen, machines, and materials, other executives in other businesses were discovering and applying principles very similar to those that he was working out, but in relation to commercial activities.

SIMILAR PRINCIPLES APPLIED TO SALESMANSHIP

The National Cash Register Company, for instance, had reduced its selling methods to the point that it had analyzed, classified, and embodied in text-book form the theory and practice of salesmanship as applied to its particular product—the first, perhaps still the most complete codification of rules that has ever been formulated for the guidance of salesmen. Every detail of the demonstration of the company's product has been analyzed and expressed in the order and even in the phraseology that experience has proved to be the most effective. Every salesman is obliged to memorize this "selling talk," and to conduct a demonstration throughout in exactly the same words and manner as is prescribed for every other salesman; the entire process, in brief has been standardized.

In another volume have been collected, from the practical experience of its salesmen,

every objection that had been made by a prospective customer against the purchase of the product, together with the approved arguments in refutation. These arguments are studied and in many cases memorized by the salesmen.

The same methods have been employed to standardize the work of the sales department as a whole. The salesmen are divided into grades, according to their abilities. As soon as a salesman attains a specified ability as expressed in "points" (a "point" is the standard sales unit, and represents a sale of \$25 in value, with additional values for the sale of special grades of goods) he is admitted to the school for salesmen, conducted by experienced instructors. Here he attends courses of lectures, recitations, and selling demonstrations extending over a period of six weeks, at the end of which oral and written examinations determine whether he is qualified for a certificate. Prizes are given for excellence in these courses, and the classes are organized and "graduated" similar to the classes in ordinary educational institutions. At stated intervals these classes are called in to pursue "post-graduate" courses of instruction, as the changes in the policies of the company and in its products demand.

The entire globe is divided into sales territory under district managers and their subordinates; for each district and sub-district a sales "quota" is established each month. A "quota" is the volume of sales (as expressed in points) which, in view of the season, local conditions, and other considerations, may be reasonably expected. Thus a standard of proficiency is established for every man in the selling organization—a "bogie score" that must be equaled to maintain the record and that must be excelled in order to qualify for the numerous bonuses and prizes that are constantly held out as incentives.

So completely has this selling organization been standardized in its details and so successful has it been in maintaining an established ratio of growth, that its methods have been adopted by other organizations that are using them with equal proficiency. And when the United Cigar Stores selects locations for its shops by stationing a representative of the company on the spot for specified periods, to make an actual count of the number of people who pass that spot in the course of the day, and when in another concern an office manager, with a stopwatch, times the work of every stenographer and posts each week, as a stimulus to effort, a comparative record that shows the speed, accuracy, and volume

of work performed and on this record, as a basis, establishes a scale of wages, both are taking long, long steps toward Scientific Management.

APPLICATION TO BUSINESS PROBLEMS IN GENERAL

For these, broadly, are the steps toward Scientific Management:

1. To separate from the "line organization" or to add to the line organization a staff officer or "staff organization."

2. To set up tentative standards of performance.

3. To correct these standards by working out scientifically the best methods of performance.

4. To determine the best inducement to the employee to attain these standards.

5. To equip the employee with clear, complete, and exact knowledge of the best way of doing the work.

This is not, perhaps, as Mr. Taylor would designate them, but as they might be taken by a business man who, having studied the literature of Scientific Management, would apply its principles to an individual business problem.

For Mr. Taylor's studies have been of industrial workers. And the exact systems he has devised and installed have been applications of the principles or laws that he has discovered to industrial organization. They should be introduced, in their entirety, in no factory except under the direct supervision of Mr. Taylor or of men trained by him or trained directly under his influence.

But many a false prophet will come to the business men bringing only the shell of Mr. Taylor's methods and not the principles, just as when the first general introduction of business system brought in its trail heterogeneous assortments of cards, filing cabinets, and record sheets that involved endless clerical labor to operate and which in many cases constituted useless red tape. For a period business men mistook the form for the substance; they believed that in the filing and filing of blanks they had "system," and ignored the real system of which these forms were merely the mechanical tools. The result was that this mechanical routine was either stripped of its non-essentials until it became a serviceable implement or was discarded entirely for the old-fashioned inaccurate rule-of-thumb method. A system is not a card or a filing cabinet; it is the right way of doing a thing. Similarly, Mr. Taylor's method of Scientific Management does not

consist of forms or charts or of sets of rules and regulations. It is a big policy of establishing after scientific study and research a standard way of performing each industrial operation with the best possible expenditure of material, capital, and labor. The forms and rules are merely the machinery by which the policy is applied.

WHAT IS A FULL DAY'S WORK?

Back of the Taylor principles and back of his particular method of applying them to actual workshop conditions, is this affirmation of the psychologists,—that all of us, employers and employees, have but a vague conception of what constitutes a full day's work for a first-class man.

Many of us confuse overwork with what is really underwork and it is only under a compelling incentive that we discover that like the runner we have a second wind.

And the problem is not merely to ascertain what is a full day's work for the workman but to ascertain what is a full day's work for the works manager, and for the office boy and the office manager, for the salesman and the sales manager, and how to induce the performance of that full day's work.

Therefore, the precise principles Mr. Taylor has formulated for industrial operations have been applied, in most cases perhaps unconsciously, to almost all forms of commercial activity.

ESTABLISHING STANDARDS OF SALES COSTS

Perhaps this is best illustrated by the experience of a Chicago house whose products are sold at retail by a staff of traveling salesmen who come into personal contact with their customers.

The sales manager was additionally compensated over and above a certain salary by a percentage of the value of the sales made under his direction. His major effort, therefore, was directed to the increase in the gross amount of the sales, unconsciously irrespective of the profits to the house. That he eventually used in the conduct of his department methods that were expensive and extravagant in order to secure a large volume of sales was due to a gross but common error in the policy of the concern,—compensation based only on volume of sales. The monthly statement showed such a constantly increasing average of sales expense that finally the management issued an order that every expense requisition of the manager should be

approved by an official in the financial department. Friction resulted and with it the diminution of this sales manager's most valuable characteristic,—enthusiasm. The percentage of the sales expense promptly decreased and so did the volume of the sales.

To meet this situation the management, with the sales manager and a few executives of the company who were temporarily recalled from the "line" organization and placed on the "staff" for advisory purposes, went into a careful analysis of each phase of the work of that department. Assuming for the time the viewpoint of the outsider, the committee divided each operation into its details and regarded each in its relation to the whole. Gradually it established standards for practically each operation of the department. It placed a tentative standard for the gross annual sales, based on past records and on present conditions. It established a standard percentage for the cost of making these sales. It analyzed the various expenses into their several factors. It prepared from the books of account a printed sheet, ruled and tabulated to record the daily and monthly statements in such form that they would acquaint the sales manager with the expenses that he was incurring, both in percentages and units, and in relation to the sales. It studied the methods of the individual salesmen and sales managers and prepared suggestions and directions as to the best methods to be used by both. It corrected the original tentative standards, and pointed out wasteful methods in the daily work of the salesmen and in the daily work of the sales manager.

Then the management said to that sales manager:

Here is a codification of the methods under which our product is to be sold. Here are the exact percentages that we can afford to pay to make these sales. And here is our proposition to you. Your salary will remain as it is. On the gross amount of the sales you make we will pay you a certain percentage. If you can attain in sales that standard which we will set up and can attain the standard at a less percentage of expense than we have designated as a standard percentage, one-half of what you save will be yours to keep. You will approve your own requisitions for expense.

In seven months the sales doubled in volume and the expense had averaged below the predetermined standard and below any past record of performance.

THE TRUE SCIENCE OF BUSINESS

But out of all the reverberant publicity given "Scientific Management"—the term

itself has almost become standardized—what is to be gained by the average business man?

For the science of business itself, when carefully formulated, will be, after all, as Dr. Scott says, merely common sense, the wisdom of experience analyzed, formulated, codified, and all in respect to certain data.

But the data are being accumulated now. That is what business men individually and through their organizations, and business publications and educational institutions, notably the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, are doing to-day. Analyzing business the world over, picking out details, matters of routine, specific methods of management, individual plans of organization which under certain conditions have produced certain proven results—picking out, in other words, the right way of doing things, or as Mr. Taylor has expressed it, the only right way of doing things—the system.

The principles of this science of business have only just begun to be formulated. But from a study of the principles of "Scientific Management" the business man can get a new business viewpoint—a new mental attitude toward his specific business problems.

That is important. For success or failure in business depends as much upon mental attitude as upon mental aptitude. And the mental attitude that prompts one business man to make a scientific study of his own peculiar requirements and by experiment determine the most effective ways of getting the thing done—whether the task is carrying a pig of iron or selling a carload of canned corn—is the mental attitude that makes for business success.

If production costs have been high, the manager's method of attacking the problem in the past has been simply to try to lower wages or to add machinery. If selling costs have increased, he has tenaciously tried to increase selling prices. And in all of his movements he has usually been guided by accounting that was merely historic—not prophetic; by standards based on past performances—not carefully analyzing possible performances.

But a changed mental attitude suggests a new approach. If costs of production are high the business man will study the equipment that he already has. He will study workmen and ascertain scientifically just what is a full day's work for these workmen and what will help and will induce them to perform this full day's work. When selling expenses rise he will look first to the men who by words of mouth or by written words sell

his product. And he will examine the standards against which these men are working and the exact methods that they use.

RESULT: LOWER PRICES

The effect upon the purchasing public of the introduction of Scientific Management will in the beginning be negligible. As long as its application is confined to occasional individual businesses, the economies that it will effect will be internal and the profit will be restricted largely to the local management. But as a scientifically managed plant, because of its lower costs of production, can eventually undersell its competitors, the same methods of management will eventually become universal and the economies will be shared by the industry generally and thus become external. The inevitable result will be a lowering of prices to the customer.

INCREASING THE WORKMAN'S VALUE TO HIMSELF

Because of the fact that scientific direction of labor is an increase in the production of the worker as a unit and of the organization as a whole, its principles have at times been opposed by various bodies of workmen who, through a misconception of their real purpose and with the knowledge of the universally recognized defects of the ordinary piecework system, have branded Scientific Management offhand as merely another effort to "speed up" the workmen. In reality the new management aims primarily not to increase the strain on the worker by forcing him into redoubled effort, but to apply his effort to greater advantage. It places at his disposal methods and machinery that have proven, by actual test, to be the most economical of his time and strength. It furnishes him with instructors (known as "functional foremen") who are more experienced in certain phases of his task than he himself, through whose supervision he is enabled to use these methods and machinery to best advantage. By a system of records, it determines the workmen's special capacities that permit him to be set at the work at which he is most proficient. And by means of a bonus system it provides for the adequate remuneration of the worker not on the basis of effort expended, but upon the more modern basis of effort practically applied and expressed in units of production. As a consequence, the workman's value to himself and to the organization is increased, as rapidly and as highly as his capabilities permit.

PRESIDENT-CHOOSING—OLD WAYS AND NEW

BY VICTOR ROSEWATER

(Member of the Executive Committee of the Republican National Committee)

HISTORY records that George Washington was chosen President of the United States without first having been nominated and even without an opposing candidate. So was his successor in office, John Adams. In the language of the street, the Presidency was, in the case of each of these distinguished patriots, "handed to him on a silver platter." The Presidency went, as it were, by common consent to the founders of the republic to whom a grateful people looked for continued service and guidance.

In the early days President-choosing, according to the primitive way, was as simple compared to modern methods as a kindergarten exercise beside a course in four-dimension mathematics. Since then the changes, although gradual, have been marked and have led up to our present complicated convention nominations that make the Electoral College but a mechanical device for registering the popular decision as between rival party organizations. It was the fluke that almost installed Aaron Burr as President, instead of Thomas Jefferson, that forced the initial modifications of the plan of President-choosing agreed upon by the framers of the Constitution.

Originally, members of the Electoral College were to vote for two persons, the one receiving the highest number of votes to be President and the next highest to be Vice-President. The danger of a succession that would pull the political lever each time from one side to the other made imperative the change by which the Electors should vote for only one person for President and for another for Vice-President. Two or three object-lessons, too, of irresponsible and haphazard action by the Electoral College; throwing the choice of President to the House or of Vice-President to the Senate because no one had a majority of the votes cast, showed the necessity of centering the efforts of the newly aligned political parties each on a single Presidential ticket and of imposing on the members of the Electoral College a moral obligation to cast their ballots uniformly for the nominees of the party which had elected them.

The forerunner of our national nominating convention was the caucus or conference of members of Congress of the same political faith who got together on their own initiative and without any mandate from their constituents assumed to advise as to who, in their judgment, was entitled to be recognized as the party standard-bearer. This caucus must necessarily have proved to be too crude and unsatisfactory to serve long as the President-choosing machinery. In such an assemblage, only those States and districts represented in Congress by members of one and the same political party had a voice and all the others were left without representation. It was to remedy these defects and to enable the rank and file of the parties, wherever they might be, to exercise at least a nominal control of the Presidential nomination that the national convention, meeting every four years, came to be evolved as we know it.

IS THE NOMINATING CONVENTION A FAILURE?

The first of these nominating conventions, made up of delegates commissioned for that purpose, met in 1832, more than forty years after the first Presidential election. To be sure, the credentials of membership were not too critically scrutinized, nor were there full delegations from each State in the Union in the early conventions; yet they were really representative, and their nominations were, as a rule, accepted as the official decrees of their respective parties. In time, national committees were appointed to carry on the work of the campaign and to act for the party in arranging the preliminaries of the next convention. A form of party organization, with a fundamental law of party government and rules to be observed by conventions and committees, came into existence, was perfected and modified to meet new conditions, and became the established custom and constitution of the political parties.

The promulgation of Presidential tickets by national nominating conventions com-

posed of delegates chosen in convention to represent State and Congressional districts in the same number (later in double the number) of Senators and Representatives in Congress has prevailed for more than seventy-five years. All our Presidents since Andrew Jackson have come to us by this way, and to say that President-choosing by convention is an utter failure and is a denial of popular government is an indictment of almost the whole political history of our country.

That there are no defects in the existing convention system calling for remedy, I would be the last to assert. The greatest weakness is the arbitrary apportionment without relation to party strength in the various States. The persistence with which those already in official place force themselves into the conventions and as delegates seek to make and unmake the executive, who in theory forms a coördinate and independent branch of the government, is another. The opportunities for special interests to exert their influence under cover through these and other agencies constitute still another fault, although they would doubtless also be exerted to greater or less degree in any form of President-choosing.

SHALL WE ADOPT THE DIRECT PRIMARY?

It is now being declared by some that the national nominating convention has quite outlived its usefulness and must soon give way to a nation-wide primary for direct choice of Presidential candidates. President-choosing by direct primary is proclaimed the closest approximation to true democracy. It must be admitted that the idea thus advanced is in itself attractive—that theoretically a Presidential primary is the logical outgrowth of the direct primary for nominating candidates for local and State offices. The propaganda for a new way of President-choosing, apparently revolutionary, warrants an inquiry as to what assurance it offers of curing existing evils, how far it is feasible, and if feasible, how such a change would have to be brought about. Discussion of this subject is, I believe, timely because Oregon at the last election adopted an act, submitted by initiative petition, applying its primary law to the selection of national convention delegates and a preferential expression on Presidential candidates. If other States should follow the lead of Oregon, we are assured, the popular nomination of Presidential candidates would be achieved.

CAN THE STATES REGULATE NATIONAL CONVENTIONS?

The new Oregon primary law is separable into two parts. The first has to do with the choice of national convention delegates. In requiring that these delegates be chosen by direct primary, Oregon is not breaking ground, because Wisconsin's primary law has for several years embraced this feature and Wisconsin sent delegates to the 1908 national conventions so chosen, as did also several other States, some like California and Ohio, by virtue of primaries ordered by the State organizations under optional or permissive laws. The power of a State to enact legislation governing national conventions has, however, been seriously questioned. In 1908 the subject was referred by the Republican National Committee to three of the ablest lawyers in the country, who agreed that these conventions were entirely extra-legal and beyond the jurisdiction of State lawmakers, and possibly also of federal lawmakers, and that all the States could do was to regulate the machinery of primary elections within their own geographical limits and to govern the conduct of party committees in charge of State or local campaigns. The vital point is that each national convention is itself the plenary power of the political party in the nation and that its decrees are independent of any law-making body and paramount to any enacted laws in conflict with them.

Let me illustrate by recalling that the Republican party has a definitely established dual unit of representation, the State for delegates-at-large and the Congressional district for district delegates. For each delegate an alternate is to be chosen in the same manner as the principal, and commissioned to act for him in the event of disability or absence. When the Legislature of Democratic Mississippi undertook to require all delegates to be selected in State convention, conforming to the Democratic unit of representation, which is the State, it made compliance with this law, by which all the districts but one might be left without delegates, a defiance of the conditions laid down by the Republican national convention, which is the highest party tribunal.

Again, Wisconsin's primary law, as originally enacted, provides that while the delegates must be chosen by direct primary in each representative district, the alternates should all be appointed by the State committees of the respective parties. The alternates, therefore, might be named without

regard to districts and should the contingency arise by which the delegates were unable to act and the alternates be called on to serve, the Republicans of various Congressional districts might be completely disfranchised.

OREGON'S NEW LAW

The newly adopted Oregon law collides with the custom of the convention in more than one place. Under the Oregon law a special primary is to be held once every four years on the forty-fifth day before the first Monday in June, at which all the delegates apportioned to that State are to be chosen by direct vote, but no elector is to vote for more than one delegate. Oregon's law wipes out entirely the recognized Republican unit of representation in the Congressional district and seeks to make all the delegates delegates-at-large. Not only this, but it would deprive every member of a party in Oregon of his equal voice in Presidential nominations enjoyed by members of the party in other States.

INCONSISTENT WITH EXISTING PRACTICE

To explain more in detail, under the existing rule every member of the Republican party is entitled to a voice in the selection of six national delegates, namely, the four delegates-at-large for his State and the two delegates for his district; every member of the Democratic party is similarly entitled to a voice in the selection of not less than six delegates and may have a voice in the selection of the whole number to which his State is entitled. The Oregon law would limit the franchise of each party member to the selection of a single delegate. The Oregon law further fails to make any provision whatever for electing alternates. Incidentally, it should not be overlooked that the last Republican national convention itself adopted, without dissent, rules to govern the make-up of the next Republican national convention, and that while these rules leave the method of electing delegates to be prescribed in the call issued by the National Committee, they expressly require the alternates to be chosen at the same time and in the same manner as the delegates.

How easily the Oregon law could be nullified if there were any purpose to do so is plain. It specifies a fixed date (which in 1912 will be April 19) for the Presidential primary, assuming that the several national nomi-

nating conventions will invariably be held in June and July as usual. But the dates of the conventions are wholly within the control of the several party organizations and could be put in January or March or any other month that seemed preferable. If the conventions were called to meet in advance of Oregon's primary day, the Oregon plan would never get started.

The second part of the new Oregon primary law has to do with a preferential expression on President and Vice-President as advisory instructions on the national convention delegates. Neither is this feature unique, although so far as I can learn, it is the first instance of a law providing for such a straw ballot under official supervision. Ohio held a State-wide primary in 1908 designed to determine the choice of Ohio Republicans as between two Ohio candidates, but the supporters of only one candidate entered into the spirit of it and the overwhelming endorsement of Mr. Taft did not prevent the delegates from two Congressional districts voting against him, thus depriving him of the benefit of a solid delegation from his own State.

But in Oregon the names of Presidential and Vice-Presidential possibilities are to be filed, with or without their consent, in the same manner as are names of candidates for State office and printed on the primary ballot. Their merits and demerits are to be set forth in the official campaign book and the vote is to be canvassed and certified to each of the elected delegates of the same political party. No penalty is prescribed for any delegate who declines to be governed by this advice and each delegate is left to determine how long, if at all, he should continue to cast his ballot for the ostensible choice of his constituency. The hope is expressed by the sponsors of the new way that the vote of such an intelligent and discriminating electorate as Oregon boasts, especially if it discloses an emphatic preference for one particular standard-bearer in any party, will have a potential influence on the delegates from other States and point to them the only nomination that can command popular support. The extent to which this influence could go would, of course, depend on whether the delegates of other States were chosen and instructed before or after this vote.

VOTING ON CANDIDATES IN OPEN PRIMARY

Be that as it may, let me note in this connection that the Oregon primary is the so-called open primary and that nothing what-

ever, in the law or practice, prevents any one there from voting any party ticket regardless of his own party affiliations or his intention to vote the same party ticket in the subsequent election. In other words, there is nothing to prevent Republicans from helping the Democrats to choose their Presidential and Vice-Presidential nominees, and vice versa, or packing the straw vote for an unpopular and weak candidate for the express purpose of having an easy mark to combat in the campaign. This difficulty would not be presented so strongly in a closed primary with participation confined to avowed and known members of each political party, but with the open primary, if the piecemeal Presidential primary proved to be what is claimed for it, assurance that the strongest man would be the high man would still be wanting.

THE "DARK HORSE"

As chief merits of the Presidential primary are set forth that it would make the "dark horse" impossible and would tend to eliminate the "favorite son," both results contributing to reduce the power of "special interests" to trade in the nominations for their own subservient or trusted representatives. The extinction of the "dark horse" would unquestionably follow a requirement barring aspirants not listed on the primary ballot. American history reveals some interesting "dark horses"; Garfield would never have been President had we then had this new way of President-choosing; Bryan would never have talked himself into a nomination on a cross of gold and crown of thorns; Roosevelt would not have succeeded the lamented McKinley. Yet the "dark horse" is admittedly an extra-hazardous risk; there would be compensating benefits to offset the loss.

THE "FAVORITE SON"

When it comes to eliminating the "favorite son" by direct primary process, that is more doubtful. What is to prevent a "favorite son" from filing in each State where a Presidential preference is to be recorded and why should not "State pride" prompt cross-marks after the name most familiar because the "home man" is an esteemed neighbor? If a "favorite son" springs forth in each State, or has his name filed by interested parties

actuated by either legitimate or questionable motives, the votes thus diverted must come from the real candidates and prevent the returns of the primary election from reflecting the true state of public sentiment or serving as a dependable guide for delegates from other States. In fact, the setting up of "favorite sons" would be as much and more a thriving business under a Presidential primary than under the convention scheme. If other States, or all the States, copied Oregon's Presidential primary law, the national nominating conventions would still in all probability be called upon to choose the standard-bearers much the same as they do now, and the preferential vote would exert the same sort of influence as the instruction passed by conventions and the straw votes taken here, there, and everywhere by self-appointed monitors.

How, then, shall we ever get to an effective direct popular choice of Presidential nominees if it is thought desirable? My answer is that it must come through the national organizations of the political parties themselves or through Congressional legislation, for which perhaps a constitutional amendment may be prerequisite. Any one of the national party organizations can at will introduce the direct primary for President-choosing and either do away with national nominating conventions altogether or continue them only for platform-making and the contingency of no nomination at the polls. A constitutional amendment could abolish the Electoral College, which we all know has become mainly ornamental, and give us direct popular election of Presidents. It could predicate such an election on a direct primary nomination or it could combine it with a preliminary election and a subsequent by-election to determine between the Presidential race horses polling the highest votes in the trial heat. Such changes in our machinery of government would be decidedly radical and are not to be expected to materialize in a day or a year. If the demand for direct Presidential nominations, however, should become general and insistent, one of the political parties might respond to it in the hope of striking a popular chord and scoring an advantage over the political enemy. In the meanwhile the sporadic efforts of Oregon, and States that may follow suit, to project a Presidential primary on the installment plan must be at best only experimental.

WILL THERE BE A NEW PARTY?

BY JAMES A. EDGERTON

ONE of the most significant results of the late election was that in Pennsylvania. There an independent candidate for Governor left the Democratic nominee a bad third and almost defeated the machine of Quay and of Penrose. If such an outcome is possible in boss-ridden Pennsylvania, what might not be accomplished in the entire nation?

The great race made by the Keystone party becomes all the more significant in view of the fact that for several months the whole country has been talking of a new party. One of the earliest public references to the subject occurred in the speech of Hugh T. Halbert, president of the Roosevelt Club of St. Paul. It was at the banquet where Gifford Pinchot made his now famous speech demanding that the special interests be driven out of politics. Mr. Halbert then said that a new party had already been formed, that though without a name it was not without principles and that its leaders were Theodore Roosevelt and the club's honored guests, Gifford Pinchot and James R. Garfield. Both of these gentlemen spoke later, but neither took the trouble to deny Mr. Halbert's statement. After the press of the country had commented on the matter, however, and many papers had connected Pinchot with the utterance, he and Garfield did join in a statement denying that either of them had proposed the actual organization of a new party.

It was not long after the St. Paul episode that a progressive paper in Des Moines called for a national conference at Kansas City to form a new party. It designated several men as the leaders of the proposed organization, among them Theodore Roosevelt and Wm. J. Bryan. Several progressive Senators and Representatives were also named.

The third reference to a new party that I recall was made by former Senator R. F. Pettigrew, of South Dakota. In an interview Senator Pettigrew strongly urged the need of such an organization and expressed the belief that if started it might sweep the country in 1912. More recently a meeting of the Knights of Labor adopted resolutions demanding a thorough reduction of the tariff and intimated that if the Democrats did not attend to this a new party might be formed that would.

These are but a few of many like references that I personally recall. Although the new party idea has been frequently disclaimed by insurgent leaders it has apparently possessed sufficient vitality to survive these denials. Only the other day I read in some agricultural paper an item signed by the initials of the editor suggesting that a new party was actually being formed without any preconcerted movement to that end. Still later came an editorial in the Chicago *Inter Ocean* sarcastically inviting Colonel Roosevelt to marshal the hosts of the New Nationalism into a third party and thus clear the atmosphere. It asserted that the Colonel had long harbored the new party idea as was proved by his Osawatomie speech. These and numberless other utterances on the subject only go to show that it is in all men's minds. It is a sort of minor chord running through the thought of the nation. It is a big but as yet undefined possibility lurking in the political background. Now the point to all this is that where everybody is thinking of a given thing as a possibility a very slight event or combination of events may precipitate that very thing as an actuality.

Aside from these suggestive but inconclusive facts, are there not more tangible signs of the formation of a new party contained in the political situation itself? As a matter of fact, there is an actual line of division cutting across both existing parties. On the Republican side this line is quite clear, separating the organization into two warring groups that are more antagonistic than the Republicans and Democrats. It is a mistake to say that the progressive movement sprang into being at the beginning of the present Congress. The struggle between the progressives and reactionaries went on while Roosevelt was President. It has only become more acute and open during the present administration. Whatever may be said to the contrary, the two factions are farther apart to-day than ever before. The President's efforts to produce harmony would be more effective were no principle involved. It is possible to compose differences that are only personal. But where fundamental policies are at stake, compromise means sacrifice of principle by one side or the other. This is an impossible sort

of harmony. It may delay the contest, but does not settle the issue.

For the Republican party again to become united it must be either all reactionary or all progressive. That it will ever again be all reactionary is so improbable as to require no discussion. Will it then be all progressive? In the newly elected Congress the regulars have more than two to one over the progressives in the Republican membership of the House and more than three to one in the Republican membership of the Senate. To say that this one-half or one-third will rule the party would be the proverbial tail wagging the dog. The reactionaries are by no means annihilated. Dazed they may be, but before they will finally relinquish control of the organization they have ruled so long there will be a more serious battle than has yet occurred. Already the tariff and corporation forces are reforming their lines. In the main they have the President with them. True, he has invited the insurgents into conference, has promised to restore their patronage and has spoken in his message for a parcels post, physical valuation of railroads, and a stronger tariff commission. Yet on the two main questions of the tariff and the trusts, he has recommended that there be no farther present legislation.

While the President defends Ballinger and the Payne-Aldrich bill, while he holds to his present advisers and advocates ship subsidies, he is not liable to go far in the direction of harmonizing the insurgents. The other regular Republican leaders can do even less to that end, for they are less progressive than Mr. Taft. Already a large and influential section of them are advising a return to the policies of Hanna and McKinley and to the days of large campaign contributions as the only means of winning elections. Whatever the President may attempt to do, this element would dearly love to throw La Follette and his followers overboard.

As for the Democrats, they are more harmonious, at least for the time being. Yet their party has been divided into Bryan and anti-Bryan camps and the moment they are in power the old lines of cleavage are almost certain to reappear. Bryan still has his hold on millions of Democrats and even if he were personally eliminated Bryanism would remain. As a matter of fact the same fight between progressive and reactionary is on in the Democratic as in the Republican party. This has been made apparent by the fight between Governor-elect Wilson and former Senator James Smith in New Jersey. It will

become more evident as soon as the Democrats are in responsible control of the House of Representatives. The inevitable result will be that the progressives of both parties will vote together, as they already have done on so many occasions, and that the reactionaries of both parties will vote together. Thus in spite of themselves they will become adjusted to the new and natural alignment.

The old partisanship is dying out and the new partisanship is arising. In the late election the people voted for Democrats only where they had no progressives to vote for. In Tennessee they could turn to a Republican against the Democratic machine.

It is folly to seek to win battles with a divided army. Bryan tried that through three disastrous campaigns, Parker attempted it in one still more disastrous, Hearst met his Waterloo in New York in the same fashion and Roosevelt split on that rock in 1910. If we are to have progressive victories we must have an all-progressive party with which to win them. We cannot go forward by switching from one half-and-half party to another half-and-half party. Political divisions as they now exist are an anachronism. They are of the past rather than of the present. They are a matter of names rather than of principles. They are not only illogical but in the long run are impossible. The real line of cleavage is between progressive and reactionary, and it is only a question of time when political parties will be made to conform to this actual division.

It is a fact not without interest, and perhaps not without significance, that every eighteen or twenty years a new party has been formed that in a general way represented the rights of the people as against special privilege and that attained considerable proportions. In 1854 the Republican party was born. In 1874 the Greenback party came into existence. At one time it polled nearly one million votes and by fusion with the Democrats elected several governors and members of Congress. In 1892 the People's party appeared. Two years later it polled almost two million votes. At one time it had a half dozen governors, as many Senators and in the neighborhood of twenty members of the House of Representatives. Eighteen years from 1892 brings us to 1910, or if twenty years be considered the period, that brings us to 1912. This consideration is lent added force by the striking circumstance that at this very juncture the country is discussing and seemingly expecting a new party and that the progressive movement has arisen in much the

same way that these other movements arose and represents in a general way the same tendencies. In all except name it is really in itself a new party. All that remains to make the parallel complete is for it to declare for independent political action.

Socialists profess to believe that theirs is the new party that is to sweep the country. This year their vote has advanced to something more than 500,000 and they elected a number of minor officials, such as members of State legislatures, and one representative in Congress. For my own part I do not believe the American people will ever accept Socialism, or at least not as now advocated and not for years to come. In Milwaukee, where its greatest strength has been attained, its city administration has not stood for socialistic principles but rather for civic reform. Mr. Victor L. Berger, the man in control of the Milwaukee situation, practically admits that if the Socialist mayor and council had sought to enact the whole Socialist program they would not this year have carried the city.

Another illuminating fact is that the Socialist vote gains only in years when the Democratic party is not radical. In 1900, when Bryan was a candidate, the Socialist vote in the entire nation was less than 100,000. In 1904, when Parker was the Democratic nominee, the Debs vote jumped up to more than 400,000. In 1908 Mr. Bryan was again the standard bearer and the Socialist vote remained almost stationary. Now that Bryan is apparently eliminated it is once more increasing. This would indicate that it is a negative rather than a positive force. Talks with many men who have voted the Socialist ticket reveal this to be the exact fact. They did it as a protest against the old parties and because there was no truly progressive party in the field. In other words the increased vote for the Socialists only gives a slight indication of what would happen if there were a new party of reform principles and along distinctively American lines. The phenomenal vote for Berry in Pennsylvania gave an even stronger indication.

Moreover, the growth of the Socialist vote in itself furnishes a powerful argument for the formation of a progressive party of more moderate principles. To the average American the social ownership of all the means of production and distribution is a dream. But brought face to face with even the possibility of such a program winning he would draw back and seek to find a more practical way out. In other words an extremely radical party, if strong enough, may stimulate mod-

erately radical action. Socialism is now impossible just as the old stand-pat reactionism is impossible. Is there not between these two extremes a middle course that the people can follow?

The late election definitely and finally repudiated the stand-patters. That is the one general and certain result that is clear. The outcome, however, is largely negative, unless something better, something constructive, arises to take the place of that which has been discarded. Personally I do not believe that the Democratic party can meet the situation. As already stated, its very effort to grapple with the problem in a responsible way will discover it to be as badly divided as the Republicans. For one thing it has no definite program on which all, or even a majority, of its members agree. On the tariff it represents all shades of opinion from free trade to the highest protection on particular interests—the special interest favored depending on the district of the member voting. The most enlightened thought of the country favors a tariff commission and revision one schedule at a time rather than by the old log-rolling methods. Yet a majority of the Democrats seem hostile to the new way and appear determined to cling to the old despite its inefficiency and scandal. The high cost of living, on which the last election turned, is still with us. What will the Democrats do, what can they do on the lines they propose, to correct this condition? The election of 1910 was not so much a Democratic victory as a Republican defeat. The Democrats are on probation. What if they fail, as they seemingly must fail? The people of the country are in no temper for further partisan failure to meet their demands. If the Democrats of the coming Congress reveal themselves as divided and inefficient, what then? Will the voters again turn to the stand-pat reactionism of the Republican majority? Will they turn to the President, who still upholds Ballinger, who still defends the Payne-Aldrich bill and who puts off tariff revision for a year or longer? Or will they turn to the progressives, who have a definite, practical, constructive policy in line with the popular demands, and make of these a party after their own hearts that will do the things they want done? Which is the probable course? Which would be the sensible course?

At this very time there is a movement on foot to form a Progressive League, national in scope and non-partisan in character. Its purposes will be to advance legislation in the interests of the people, to reduce the tariff and

the cost of living, to control the corporations, to bring about physical valuation of railroads, to eliminate graft and bribery, to purify elections, to promote direct primaries, direct election of Senators and direct legislation, to drive the bosses and special interests out of politics and in general to forward the progressive cause. True, this, if generally organized, will not be a new party; but it could very readily be turned into one, should the occasion arise.

The labor forces are ready for independent political action. Vast bodies of farmers are rapidly becoming ready. The Farmers' Union, for example, stands for progressive principles. While it is pledged as an organization not to go into politics, there is nothing to prevent its individual members from doing so. The Grange is moving along these same progressive lines. The whole country is ripe for a new departure. The election of last year was only a prelude to that which is to be.

The railroad question is as acute as at any time in the past. If the threatened increase in freight rates is brought about, as now seems probable, it will become more acute. Despite all the legislation, little of a remedial nature has actually been done. It will not take long to demonstrate that along present lines little can be done.

Despite the outcry and attempted legal procedure against the food trusts and other agencies that corner the necessities of life their grip is as firm as ever. Before such vital problems, of what good are outworn party names? Why should not the people forget their old divisions and unite for their own protection?

In my own opinion the new party is already born, even though its members do not yet recognize the fact. Mr. Halbert was wiser than he knew in announcing its advent and in stating that though without a name it is not without principles. But it is not without a name. It has been fighting a battle in Congress and in the primaries and during that struggle the people themselves christened it. It is the Progressive party. It has already freed the House of Representatives, broken the Aldrich machine in the Senate, exposed and partially defeated the scheme of private interests to grab the country's remaining natural resources, made the Payne-Aldrich tariff a stench in the nostrils of the people,

driven out many of the political bosses with the flaming sword of direct nominations and put the army of stand-pat reactionism to utter rout. It has divided the Republican party and will divide the Democratic party if that organization does not show itself thoroughly and efficiently progressive. The reform wave that has advanced, then receded, is once more returning with added force. Despite the uncertainties of leaders, the American people themselves know what they are about. It is they who constitute the Progressive party. They formed it, named it and will yet make it an independent political entity. Through it as an instrument they will work their will. They are tired of fighting their battles with divided armies, of depending on organizations whose power of coherence is in a name rather than in a principle, of turning from one party that is inefficient to another that is still less efficient. Having discarded fictions and pretenses they are ready for actualities. They hearken to the voice that said, "Speak unto the children of Israel that they go forward." They are of the same stock and spirit as those who formed the republic of Washington and preserved that of Lincoln; and they will yet rescue and perpetuate the republic of our day.

Parties are but the symbols of issues. The new issues are here and the new party is born to represent them.

Every indication now is that William H. Taft will be the nominee of the Republican national convention in 1912. At the same time it is certain that a large section of that convention will be for Senator Cummins or some other progressive candidate. Will the insurgents acquiesce in the naming of Taft? Can they do so and be true to their principles and to the American people? Will not the very logic of the situation, the very force that impelled them to start the progressive movement, then drive them to declare their independence and to name a third ticket? With a conservative like Judson Harmon as the Democratic candidate, such a progressive ticket would draw to itself multiplied thousands of advanced Democrats. This would be the actual launching of the new party. For one I regard some such a result as both desirable and inevitable. It would clear the atmosphere, define the issue and drive the selfish interests all on one side where the people could fight them in the open.



WILL THERE BE A NEW PARTY? A DEMOCRAT'S ANSWER

BY S. STANWOOD MENKEN

(Member of the Executive Committee of the New York Democratic League)

IN the sense that a political party is composed of men of like political ideas, I believe that a new political party has been born. Its members are in both of the old parties, and in the absence of the sincere adoption of progressive principles by one or the other of the present parties the organization of a new party as such to solve the problems confronting us will be brought about.

The Democratic party if true to its traditional principles should be the progressive party, adopting in the main the propaganda of the progressives, much of which is Democratic in its origin and fairly consistent with that party's platform.

I trust that the Democracy will recognize this obligation, but before this can be done the Democracy must face a serious internal struggle.

That there must also be a new alignment of party membership seems clear. The growth of the country, the facility for intercommunication, has lessened the opposition to centralization to such a degree that greater federal direction in many ways is recognized as a necessity, and many Democrats as well as Republicans are in favor of it, provided it be surrounded with proper safeguards.

The tariff is now recognized as a "local issue" (to borrow General Hancock's famous phrase) to be adjusted with regard to general economic rather than individual needs, and such being the case there is little basis of distinction as to principle between the two parties, unless we agree that the future will find us with a conservative party representing wealth and reaction, and a progressive party responsive to the needs of the hour, and it may be a consistently radical party without interference with legitimate business interests.

The suggestion is now made that Roosevelt, LaFollette, and others will convert the Republican party into a radical party and that when this occurs the Democratic party will become the conservative party, representing the so-called "interests," or privilege-owning classes, who will furnish it with the financial means for victory at the polls, and the intimation also follows that as now constituted these interests regard the Demo-

cratic party as the safer party for them, a view largely taken in the last New York State campaign by men identified with important corporations.

There is, however, a large body of Democrats who feel that the party must not allow itself to be controlled by the interests and that it must drive the interests away from it, and that it can only do so by adopting and living up to a platform so progressive as to make any alliance between the vested interests and the holders of privilege within the Democracy impossible.

In the internal struggle, however, the Democracy has to purge itself of these Democrats for profit, and whether it is to be the progressive party must depend upon the result of this contest. To succeed in this endeavor we must recognize that the problems suggested by the progressives are not only economic and political but have their basis in matters largely ethical and gravely personal.

The cry must not be only for specific reforms advocated but for the elimination of the men who stand for graft and privilege. These men are equally in force in both parties. They work together or separately as the interests may dictate. They are obstructionists to real reforms, and their influence must be destroyed, otherwise we shall have pretensions and palliatives instead of remedies. The Democratic party for the future must recognize that there cannot be any reform meriting success so long as they have a vestige of influence in the party.

The extent to which both parties in our great cities are controlled by the notoriously unfit and the power of the autocratic rule of the bosses is too patent to require discussion. In clearing the way, however, for the advent of a new party this element must be primarily dealt with, as it constitutes our gravest national evil, the extent of which is not limited to local misgovernment or temporary wrongs to the city, State, or nation through which the corrupting influence radiates, but makes certain economic waste, saps national vitality, and destroys the potentiality of America and Americans.

It might also be added that it destroys faith in

republican institutions, and so has a world-wide effect on all liberty-loving people. Its origin is the neglect and indifference of the average citizen to his civic duties; its cure, a higher sense of responsibility. To awaken the people should be the great work of the progressives.

In stating this, nothing new is suggested, but it is given here as the viewpoint of what should be the ground plan of any progressive party, and while agreeing with the principle

stated by Mr. Edgerton that the progressives should "drive the bosses out of politics," it is submitted that they should drive the people in and having driven them into politics keep them interested all the time.

If the Democratic party is strong enough to prevail in this struggle over those who are interested in it for personal purposes, then it can properly be the progressive and dominant party.

WILL THERE BE A NEW PARTY? A REPUBLICAN'S ANSWER

BY JOHN A. STEWART

(President of the Republican League of Clubs)

NO conclusion can be drawn from facts relating to the present political situation upon which can be predicated a belief that either a third party is about to be organized or is necessary. Parties are born in response to great moral exigencies, not "made to order." The degree of their permanency as affirmative influences for progress depends upon their ability to meet constructively those great moral issues which assume form and substance with each recurring generation. There must, broadly speaking, be excepted from such characterization one class of party organizations, of which the Democratic party has been for years and is yet the most conspicuous example afforded during practically our entire political history. The present Democratic party developed almost immediately, in its minority, into a party of negation, obstruction, and, under the tutelage of Burr and Clinton, of machineism.

Three times in its history it has been conspicuously only a party of correction. It has continued from Jefferson's time to the day of Bryan and Harmon as the party that opposes, save during periods when, owing to peculiar exigencies, it has been obliged to offer and to attempt to carry out a constructive policy at times diametrically opposed to its reputed principles. In the meeting of such needs it has more than once had to go for inspiration and enlightenment to that progressive sentiment which, organizing under Washington and Hamilton, has had the genius and intelligence successfully to meet when in control of the government every great, vital, national issue.

Under a form of government such as ours, the people, with reference to any particular question of more than local import, divide naturally into two groups, and as naturally these groups may be classified as the constructive, affirmative group, and the negative, "the Opposition" group, or, as six months ago, "the Outs." Since the foundation of the Republic, the line of demarcation in partisanship has disclosed two great sentimental movements, the exemplars and exponents of the one being George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, and John Marshall, and of the other Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, Andrew Jackson, and James Buchanan. It is an interesting commentary on the instability and incertitude of party mind that in numerous instances the leaders of either side have, for reasons of political expediency or because of a natural social and economic development, appropriated as their own policies which have seemed to be the peculiar property of the other. Nevertheless, throughout our political history, the line of demarcation between the ideas of Hamilton and the policies of Jefferson can be very distinctly followed from 1789 to the present.

Again, a careful studying of American political history clearly discloses the fact that third parties are not and cannot in the very nature of things be a permanent political condition. Yet it must also be conceded that there has been almost from the beginning of the Republic a third party which has existed without name and without permanent place upon the ballot, namely, the independent voter, that mighty influence of correction and

punishment which has dealt summarily with either party when the party in opposition has been impotent to compel reform. That this third party exists to-day as proof of the ability of the American people, even under laws and methods of party management which are a crying disgrace, temporarily at least, to chastise insolent partisan guilt, is clearly demonstrated in the present condition of the Republican party.

This unorganized party organization called public opinion, the American moral sense, or whatever you will, by refusing to vote, elected Grover Cleveland Governor of New York, buried David B. Hill under an avalanche of popular disapproval, and aided in nominating Theodore Roosevelt President of the United States in the face of an audacious politico-financial combination. At the last election, by a refusal to vote, it overwhelmed the Republican party and served warning upon the Democratic opposition by a minority vote that it was put into power not because of any inherent virtue in Charles F. Murphy and Tammany Hall, but because of the outrageous failure of Republican managers to meet insistent demand for a popularizing of popular government and methods of nomination and election. And this same power, without organization or machinery, and needing and wanting neither, will overwhelm the Republican party in 1912 unless everywhere party managers heed this demand for drastic, thorough reorganization. Even so there can be no hope for success of any movement that would disorganize and disrupt the Republican party, and build upon its ruins a third organization under a new title which should finally absorb it.

It is, of course, pure speculation to attempt to state what would have been the present situation if Theodore Roosevelt had delayed until after election the promulgation of the Osawatimie platform. Personally, I am inclined to believe that had the Osawatimie speech been delivered after the election, at a time when the bitterness and excitement of the campaign had been followed by receptive calm, either thorough reform within the Republican party would immediately have followed, or there would have been a schism within the party which would have led to a third ticket in 1912, and consequently the election of a Democratic President.

There is nothing in the situation to-day that should lead Republicans like myself, who have always advocated the belief that the party and not the organization should

give direction to party activities, to fear that any third movement at this juncture is even possible, or that, if reforms within the organization be carried out, the Republican ticket will not be elected in 1912. With all due respect to the gentlemen mentioned by Mr. Edgerton as the possible exponents of the third-party idea, they would not, I believe, if they were ultimately to attempt to organize such a party, meet a response that would make such a movement anything more than a defeat of the Republican ticket.

Colonel Roosevelt and other progressive leaders *still* remain within the party fold, and, so far as the public knows to the contrary, they are *still* exponents of the idea that reform should be carried on within the ranks. The Republican party is still, and will continue to be, despite a fatuous, even stupid policy of party management, an efficient instrumentality for national well-being.

For, after all, parties are not built as one would build a house, but created and held together and perpetuated by sentiment and by a common interest. With each recurring generation new issues arise which are but differing phases of long unsettled questions. Always, for a time, after the joining and disposition of every great moral issue organization influence, through necessity of discipline, continues potent. But in the after period, while parties are in the waiting, as now, for great problems to assume such concrete form as will bring their meaning home to every citizen, and stir men to partisan activity, parties become broken up into groups, each group dominated by an individual or coterie of individuals. Bossism in its grossest form is the natural concomitant, and in the face of that peculiar and characteristically American contempt of statutory law and regard for authority only as it is personified in the individual abuse and corruption naturally and inevitably succeed to patriotism and civic pride. We are at present passing through the throes of such a condition. One trouble with us as party men has been that we have regarded the term Republican as applying to a fixed condition. On the contrary, the term is only a sentimental designation applied to conditions which change with each generation. There is certainly a disposition and a power within the Republican party to bring about a correction of our party faults. Out of the turmoil of factional strife must come and will come new leaders, new resolves, higher ideals, and a marked progress toward the attainment of better things.

FIGHTING AMERICAN TYPHOID

BY JOHN BESSNER HUBER, M.D.

ASIATIC cholera, for many weeks last year and up to the coming of the present winter, visited the European peoples, especially in Russia; and morning after morning the American citizen, educated, sovereign, eminently practical, not to be put upon, free as the upward-soaring lark—and all that sort of thing—has, in glancing over his newspaper, pitied those poor folk for the sufferings they had to endure by reason of their ignorance and their supineness. And as regularly, along with his breakfast cup of coffee, has the American citizen been blessing himself that he is not as those blind, bludgeoned, superstitious moujiks, who so submissively endure and die of the cholera. Pending such unctuous reflection he has held in abeyance, somewhere among the subliminal strata of his consciousness, any consideration of American typhoid.

Yet these two diseases are of precisely the same nature, except only that the bacillus known as the cholera vibrio is the specific cause of the one, and the typhoid bacillus of the other. It is just only a change in nomenclature. Of course typhoid is not so dreadful among us as is cholera in Russia; but the difference is only one of degree and not at all of kind.

They are both ingestion infections, these diseases; in both the bacillus is disseminated from the excreta of sufferers, from their vomit, and possibly—but rarely, in any event—from their sputum; both afflict human beings who take into their mouths, and thence into their digestive tracts, food or drink or any other substance in any way contaminated with the parasite. Neither cholera nor typhoid is contracted in any other way than this; neither is an air-borne infection, such as diphtheria or smallpox: for which, and other reasons to be given, the prevention of cholera and typhoid is scientifically most simple—that is, everything that needs to be known for adequate prophylaxis is now known; although the practical application of the scientific principles is not a simple matter.

Imagine the pother that would be stirred were a single epidemic of Asiatic cholera to develop this side the Atlantic. Yet with our world-famous optimism we cheerfully suffer

and die, many unnecessary thousands of us every year, of its congener, American typhoid. We have become accustomed to the latter, which is always with us; here lies the essential and the only difference. Familiarity has bred unconcern. In the census year 1900 we had 35,379 deaths, giving typhoid fourth place in our mortality list. The South suffered most; the ten States with the highest death rate (79 per 100,000) were all located south of the Potomac and east of the Mississippi.

Comparing ourselves with those infection-enduring Europeans, we find that for the years 1901-5 the annual typhoid mortality per 100,000 in Scotland was 6.2; in Germany, 7.6; in Austria, 19.9; in Hungary, 28.3; in Italy, 35.2; in these United States, 46: which means that in a single year we Americans have averaged 400,000 cases and 35,000 typhoid deaths. Some of these European countries, now having relatively low death rates, formerly had high typhoid mortalities—that is, they have benefited by the clear teachings of science; and their decidedly lower mortalities are due to the better enforcement than among us of the measures preventive of typhoid fever.

PREVENTABLE "VISITATIONS"

In my article on Asiatic cholera, in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for October, 1910, I observed how regularly, for many years, with the coming of spring, St. Petersburg has been suffering from cholera, chiefly because her people were drinking the polluted waters of the Neva, and of the canals traversing that unfortunate city, whilst near by is a most precious gift of the Almighty, a lake of purest crystal water, the aqueducting of which would long ago have ended those "visitations." Turn we now to one of our American communities, the population of which two years ago was 6000. (I am sketching its conditions at that time; I know not definitely what they are to-day.)

A WATER-INFECTED TOWN

A small river runs through that town, which besides enjoys the propinquity of

"an old canal"; the houses are crowded at the foot of the hills, and along the mountain edges, because of the overflow in the low sections during the spring freshets. For five years typhoid epidemics have developed regularly with the late winter; besides which there have been a few scattered cases in each preceding fall. Thus has this American community been confidently expecting its annual typhoid mortality, precisely as St. Petersburg expects every spring to entertain her "Asiatic guest."

From the end of January to the end of April, 1907, the zealous and excellent health officer reported 51 cases of typhoid. (There were also sporadic cases throughout that year, not related to these epidemics.) All of the 51 sufferers, except three, drank the "village water." There were numerous milk supplies, from which these patients obtained their milk. Impure milk oftentimes occasions epidemics of typhoid, but it did not in this instance; for no one dairy appears to have supplied these patients to the exclusion of the others; many inhabitants supplied equally with the patients by these dairies did not suffer typhoid; and there were no cases of this disease in the families of the milk dealers, who all produced their own milk supplies—manifestly unwatered!

Some explanation of late winter epidemics of typhoid fever may be found in the investigations of Frost and Ruediger: Typhoid bacilli disappear much more rapidly from polluted river water during the summer months than in the winter, when the stream is covered with snow and ice. The destruction of typhoid bacilli in the river water in summer is largely through the growth of microscopic vegetation and saprophytic bacteria which gives off dialyzable substances harmful to the bacillus. Such inimical activity is held in abeyance under a temperature of 0° C. (32° F.). The sun's direct rays are also a factor destructive to the bacillus; but their effects are lost when ice and snow cover the stream. Thus water-borne typhoid has its epidemics oftentimes in the late winter and the early spring.

These annual early winter epidemics were demonstrated by the New York State Department of Health to have been due to the pollution of the community's general or "village water" supply, which was derived from the river flowing through it; and the main source of the pollution was found to have been the sewage of other communities (one in particular) up-stream. Above this town there were sewers and numerous other nuisances,

some overhanging the stream. A bridge was decorated with the sign "\$10 fine for throwing refuse into the river, by order of the Board of Health"; beneath a structure adjacent to this bridge was evidence sufficient to have bankrupted that whole county, had this order received any sort of enforcement. Behind a depot near by, and above this bridge, was a Hungarian settlement with outhouses very close to the river, the material from which was from time to time hoed into the water. Near by, again, was a hotel with a closet overhanging the river. Imagine the result had typhoid carriers made "transient" visits to that hotel.

A well-defined section of the community under consideration was typhoid free; and this section used exclusively lake or spring water. There was no typhoid in the environs rural districts. Its water supply had been the same for a number of years past; and these late winter epidemics had not supervened until some seven years ago, when this community began to average fifty cases with the coming of spring.

And now I put it to the reader if this description will not apply in its essentials to any among hundreds of cities, towns and villages throughout these United States of ours; if this is not indeed a typical status. Sometimes the local boss, whose political affiliations are such that no one has the courage to object, maintains a manure heap back of his grog shop and adjacent to a thoroughfare. Perhaps a factory owner is invulnerable for the reason that he has done the right thing in the way of campaign contributions; possibly the owner of the factory, the sewage of which is voided into the stream, makes philanthropic gifts—and of course it would never do to trouble so benignant a personage. Inscrutable it is, how in this most advanced of civilizations human life must go under, whenever it gets in the way of greed and meanness and the vested interest!

IMPROVEMENTS IN SANITATION

Of course things are not so bad as they have been. Many communities have in the last decade done much to improve their milk and water supplies, to install better sewage disposal systems, to improve general sanitary conditions. They have come to a definite realization that defective sanitation means defective civilization. We are not likely to repeat—at least, it is earnestly to be hoped not—the experience, for example, of Plymouth, Pa., in 1885, with 1100 cases and 14

deaths; or of Ithaca, N. Y., in 1903, with 1350 cases and 82 deaths; or of Watertown, N. Y., in 1904, with 582 cases and 44 deaths; or of Pittsburg, Pa., in 1908, with 5265 cases and 432 deaths; or of Philadelphia and Scranton in the same year, the former with 9721 cases and 1063 deaths, the latter with 1155 cases and 111 deaths. All these epidemics occurred despite the fact that by attention to soil drainage and the introduction of pure water into homes typhoid fever can be practically eliminated in epidemic form.

Though much has been accomplished, though things are not so bad as they were a decade ago, much nevertheless remains of achievement.¹ In 1908 Dr. Ditman wrote:² "The cost of typhoid fever each year in sickness and death throughout America amounts to many million dollars. The sickness and death from this cause in New York City, and in the epidemics of Philadelphia, Scranton, and Pittsburg during a single year represent an economic loss to those cities of \$3,750,000; such epidemics, with their resulting losses, are startling in an age which considers itself enlightened."

CONTAMINATION OF WATER AND MILK

That Plymouth epidemic of 1885 was indicative of much. During the winter a man living on the bank of a stream that flowed into the town reservoir came down with typhoid. His excreta were thrown out on the snow; and in the spring the waters from its melting, and of the rains, washed the bacilli into the town's water supply. Typhoid fever suddenly broke out. The population was 8000; during the height of this "explosive" epidemic from 50 to 200 persons were attacked daily; altogether there were 1104 cases and 114 deaths; people who drank, not from the reservoir, but from wells, escaped.

On the other hand, the well is oftentimes to blame. A man taken ill with typhoid in a tavern has his undisinfected excreta thrown

on the ground without. Presently the family of the tavernkeeper came down with it; and following them one half the population of the neighborhood. Ten deaths were the harvest; and all the houses in which the disease appeared had taken their water from that tavern well.

Yet, though most typhoid epidemics are due to bacillus-polluted water, all are by no means to be referred to this cause. The amazingly tough parasite has remained potential in ice several months. This bacillus multiplies rapidly in milk, an excellent culture medium. The unclean hands of some one who has come in contact with the discharges of a typhoid patient may contaminate the milk; or it may be drawn into containers (cans, bottles or pails) that have been washed with infected water; or flies may introduce the germs from typhoid discharges; or germ-impregnated dust may get into the milk: at least 195 epidemics have been traced to milk contaminated on the farm. It is considered that in 1908 a single Boston milkman, who worked while suffering with typhoid, originated an epidemic of 400 cases.

Food may become contaminated in various ways; as by having been washed with unclean water, or by having the bacillus deposited upon it by the fly. The oyster, "fattened" near sewage outlets, has had its victims a-plenty; other sea food, as the lobster, has transferred the bacillus.

"TYPHOID CARRIERS"

There is danger of transmission by the "walking typhoid" patient, who is not ill enough to get the disease diagnosed, or who is too courageous to submit to the bed and treatment. Then there is the "typhoid carrier," such as the cook who had never herself had the disease, but who nevertheless, in the customary round of her engagements, infected a number of households—27 patients in five years; in another case virulent typhoid bacilli were found, though the subject has suffered his attack of the disease forty years before. Also must be considered the "typhoid contact," who has become contaminated by his association or his ministrations in typhoid cases. In the Washington epidemic of last spring it was concluded that the national capital has a good water supply and excellent sanitary supervision; despite which it has a death rate among the highest in the United States. The water supply was found to be responsi-

¹Instructive is the example set by the city of Munich: In 1856 its typhoid mortality was 2.91 per 1,000 of population. At that time the soil of the city was honeycombed with cesspools, and a large part of the water supply was obtained from wells and pumps sunk in this soil. Between 1856 and 1887 the condition of the city underwent, at several conspicuous periods, a radical sanitary reform. The cesspools were filled and the introduction of new ones was prohibited. An elaborate system of sewage was introduced, pumps and wells were abandoned, and a pure water supply was brought from a source beyond suspicion of pollution. As a result the mortality from typhoid fever fell; and in 1887 it had reached the very low rate of 0.1 per 1,000 of population, a reduction of about 96.6 per cent, in the deaths from this disease alone.—Ditman.

²N. E. Ditman: "Education and its Economic Value in the Field of Preventive Medicine." *Columbia University Quarterly*, June, 1908.

ble for little if any of the disease. Careful comparison of the prevalence of flies and of typhoid cases could not elicit a relationship. Milk was the source in several localized epidemics, in one of which the infection was traced back from two dairies to one farm, the owner of which (himself in good health) was a typhoid carrier. Personal contact with the sick was in this investigation found to be a large factor in the evolution of the epidemic.

The typhoid carrier retains the germ in the gall-bladder, where it multiplies, continually discharging bacilli into the intestines.

THE UBIQUITOUS HOUSE FLY

The house fly, well named also the typhoid fly, is one of the chief factors in typhoid transmission. This indiscriminating insect finds equally congenial habitat in filth and in food; it thrives with indifference in the manure heap, and in such human food as butter and milk. We speak of typhoid as the autumnal disease, because, with regard to isolated, sporadic cases as a part from epidemics, it attains its highest mortality in the fall of the year. Many an urbanite has returned from his vacation down with typhoid, or from an automobile trip well incubated with it: whereupon those tainted wells have been blamed. Wells are certainly from time to time at fault; but probably not so often as has been assumed. Possibly the urbanite has contracted his "rural" typhoid before he ever set out on his jaunt or his holiday. The incubation period (from the time of exposure to the infection to the manifestation of the "invasion") is in typhoid about a fortnight; following upon this the disease endures a month to six weeks. Thus, counting back two months from the fall rise in typhoid deaths to the time when the disease is contracted, we shall have come upon the time when the filthy house fly prevails most. Upon his legs, his wings and his body he carries the bacilli, many thousands for each insect, in addition to those he has himself ingested. A noted physician has written about "the fly that does not wipe his feet." But he does wipe his feet; and more than that. One sees him alight upon a lump of sugar; or upon the nipple of a baby's bottle. Each pair of his six legs is vigorously rubbed together; then the wings are as conscientiously scraped; and finally the toilet is completed with a massage of the abdomen. By such process are thousands of pathogenic

bacteria deposited upon the human edible that is the fly's resting place.¹

PREVENTIVE MEASURES

We may note here that, as in all infections, there must be two factors: the presence of the bacillus, and the congenial human soil upon which this germ may thrive and multiply. Predispositions make the soil congenial; they are such untoward phenomena as overwork, poverty, starvation, previous weakening affections, which enervate the body. In typhoid, as in cholera and all infections, fear is a predisposition.

An exhaustive consideration of typhoid prophylaxis is not within the scope of this paper; the principles will be obvious from the foregoing. Circulars of adequate information are now generally distributed by municipal and State health authorities. The United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service at Washington, D. C., provides literature which a two-cent stamp will bring to the citizen, notably two papers by Dr. L. L. Lumsden. In one of these, "What the Local Health Officer can do in the Prevention of Typhoid Fever," it is emphasized that he should: (1) Become informed as to the best known methods of prevention. (2) Secure the prompt report of recognized cases and of suspected cases, so that preventive measures may be begun early. (3) Advise and have carried out at the patient's bedside efficient methods of prevention. (4) Have preventive measures continue as long as the dejecta are infective. (5) Discover bacillus carriers, and safeguard against the spread of infection from them. (6) Secure proper disposal of sewage. (7) Prevent the introduction of infection from without through the water supply, the milk supply, and the general food supply. (8) Secure the coöperation of practicing physicians. (9) Exercise an influence in the local medical society, so that the latter may be a school of instruction in the principles of prevention, as well as in the cure of the disease. (10) Make the health office educative.

In the other of Dr. Lumsden's papers, on "What the Mayor and City Council can do in the Prevention of Typhoid Fever," it is urged that these officers should: (1) Become informed as to the nature of the infection, its modes of spread and the methods to prevent it. (2) Make disease prevention a conspicuous policy of the administration. (3)

¹ Cases supposed to be typhoid through "aerial infection" are to be explained by fly transmission.

Make efficiency the primary basis of appointments in the health office. (4) Provide adequate salaries for health officers. (5) Appropriate funds for sanitary improvements as liberally as the taxation rate will permit. (6) Provide for the collection of mortality and morbidity statistics, so that the result of sanitary work may be known. (7) Provide for the proper care of the sick. (8) Keep in close touch with and support the health officer in his work. (9) Coöperate with the authorities of other municipalities, of the State, and of the nation. (10) Teach by precept and example, the precautionary measures.

Thus, in the community which does not take kindly to the maxim that "there is no help for a contented slave," there will be active, first: The individual citizen. For prophylaxis must begin in the home. What is to be done in the family? In times of epidemic only thoroughly cooked food is eaten; all water and milk not beyond suspicion is boiled. Indigestible food is not eaten. Oysters, lobsters and the like are for the time being avoided. Filters for domestic use are generally unreliable. Wells impervious to bacteria must be constructed, after consultation with experts. Cisterns, cess-pools and closets must not be neglected because they are unpleasant to consider; they must be made sanitary. Manure heaps must be screened or put into pits; they are the chief breeding places of flies. Screens against flies are imperative in the summer, especially in the kitchen and dining room; remnants of food should be burned or otherwise made impervious to insects. The physician's instructions as to the management of the sick room and the care of the patient must be scrupulously followed by the nurse and the family; especially are the hands of the attendants to be washed frequently, disinfectants following the soap and water. Personal and household hygiene are essential. One should not bathe at beaches nor in rivers or lakes near sewer openings. No one who is sick, or who is attending typhoid patients, or in whose family there is this disease, should manipulate well buckets, or work about a pump or in a dairy. Even walking upon ground polluted with human waste, and then standing upon a well platform has resulted in pollution of the water.

Next comes the family practitioner, who generally first takes expert cognizance of the case, which it is imperative he should report.

Next comes the local health department, and its sanitary chief, the local health officer.

In typhoid, as in all prophylaxis, the government's business is twofold: To see to it that the citizen shall do all that he can in the circumstances, for himself, for his family and for the community; and in the second place to do for him, and consequently for the community, such things as he unaided is powerless to do.

Then comes the State Department of Health which (as the community does for the citizen the things he is powerless to do) does for the community the things it cannot do for itself: the eradication of pollution, the investigation of sewage problems, the vouchsafing of pure milk, the inspection of water sheds and of reservoirs (by the State and not by the private company).

Finally there is the community in its corporate capacity, as distinct from the individual, the political unit. It is the essence of our American institutions that our laws are effective only in so far as public opinion is back of them; in other words, we get always precisely the service from our government we are entitled to, no more and no less. The better citizens we are, the more surely, the more satisfactorily our laws will be enforced. And what can the citizen better work for than the conservation, through the government, of the home. Senator Root truly observed, though he was not speaking at the time of epidemics, that "after all, the thing which we have government for is the preservation of the home." So the right men should be made the public health officers; and then the body politic must be ever vigilant in upholding them, and in having the laws made for the conservation of the public health enforced. *Salus populi suprema est lex!*

In January, 1910, there was a typhoid epidemic in Montreal; and Emily MacDonnell tells in the June *Trained Nurse* how it was fought: To begin with, a small drawing-room meeting, by invitation of Professor Starkey of McGill University, was held, in which influential citizens, representing diverse creeds and nationalities, took part. Three days after, the well-equipped Montreal Typhoid Emergency Hospital was receiving patients. Next day a fund of \$60,000 was available for the campaign; thenceforth friends and finances were never lacking.

The previous autumn had seen more than the usual amount of typhoid; by early winter the number of cases was increasing steadily; Christmas found an epidemic (attributed by some, who thought these prophylactic proceedings highly sacrilegious,

to Halley's comet). The disease, in a very severe form, was confined almost wholly to the predisposed working people, who badly needed hospital care and shelter. The city's established hospitals were overflowing and daily refusing cases. The municipal authorities were dreadfully negligent, especially regarding the water supply (poetic justice was done them by their ejection from office at the polls shortly after the establishment of this typhoid emergency hospital).

Several buildings—empty factories and the like—were put at the disposal of the Typhoid Hospital Committee; a staff of two hundred workers (lay and professional) was formed, which was kept night and day up to this number. Dignity was thrown to the winds; the president of the board might be found handling a broom or nailing down a carpet as industriously as any cleaning woman; manicured hands washed and dried dishes. Women from the Salvation Army barracks were set to watching delirious patients.

In this emergency hospital the order and systematic management obtaining in a general hospital was not essential: conditions had to be faced that had never before been met; quick thinking and acting were necessary; big and little things had to get their proper value and relation; speedy and immediate relief had to be given; patients to be admitted and cared for without red tape. Lay help was indispensable; besides, the appearance in the building of representative people gave the public confidence, since "an emergency hospital has no back reputation to call on." During the three months of its existence no lay helper in this hospital was injudicious or got in the way of the professional worker. Only one attendant contracted typhoid; and his was a very mild case. The nurses remained in exceptionally good health; for the cooking was good, the ventilation was right, and daily sleigh rides were taken by those off duty, at the invitation of a "transportation company."

Though the type of typhoid was very severe, the epidemic left a mortality of but four per cent. There were no accidents, no contretemps, and everybody learned some-

thing practical about typhoid fever prevention. The unused hospital supplies, all valuable and in good condition, were packed and stored away, against any future occasion for their use. Perhaps there will not be any future occasion—in Montreal.

VACCINATION AGAINST TYPHOID FEVER

It is not unlikely we shall be vaccinating against typhoid fever, as we do now by routine against smallpox; also that we shall be using, by hypodermic injection or otherwise, curative agencies in typhoid. Here is a means of prophylaxis and cure still very much *sub judice*, nor is it by any means to be understood to have gained general acceptance in medical science. One may, however, state definite conclusions thus far reached. Inoculation against typhoid is now, I believe, a measure to which all soldiers in the British and other European armies¹ must submit. Captain F. F. Russell, of the Army Medical School at Washington, D. C., after an extensive and continual study of this subject, reports that vaccination against typhoid undoubtedly protects to a very great extent against the disease; it is an indispensable adjunct to other means of prevention among troops and others exposed to infection; the statement that vaccination should not be carried out in the presence of an epidemic is not justified by the facts at hand; the procedure is easily carried out, and only exceptionally does it provoke severe general reaction; no untoward results occurred in a series of 3640 vaccinations. Compulsory vaccination is now urged for all candidates ambitious to enter the United States Army. Typhoid vaccination is beyond peradventure advisable for the removal of typhoid bacilli from the discharges of "typhoid carriers," concerning whom no rule limiting quarantine or isolation can be applied, for the protection of others.

¹ In the British Army, for a period of three and one half years (from the beginning of 1905 to June, 1908) Leishman found that among 5473 soldiers vaccinated against the disease, 21 took it and 3 died—3.8 cases per 1000; in 6610 soldiers practically under the same conditions, who were not vaccinated, there were 187 cases and 26 deaths—28.3 per 1000 cases.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WHAT WILL THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY DO?

WHAT Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, writing on "The Democratic Opportunity" in the *North American Review*, says, is undoubtedly true; namely, that there are hundreds of thousands of independent thinkers and voters in the land—enough to decide at any time any question of sufficient gravity to arouse their interest, and that this body of sound conservatism refuses to be bound to the chariot-wheel of any political party. This conservative element is divided between the Democrats and the Republicans.

That portion in the Democratic party withstood all the delusions on the silver question and decided the issue; and now a similar element in the Republican party has broken through the trammels of custom and has rebuked the leaders of that party for their sacrifice of the people to "the interests."

Mr. Page traces to its origin the disruption of the Republican party—a party which "has been for a generation, politically speaking, omnipotent," and which "enthroned on the Olympus of public patronage and private privilege, like Jove, has created the atmosphere in which it cast its thunderbolts." Mr. Roosevelt in enforcing Civil Service reform "struck away one prop which the Republican party had rested on"; but he left one, and it was the greatest of all. "The tariff itself, with its protection for a privileged class, created the vastest corruption fund that ever existed."

But it was the law requiring the publication of all large campaign contributions which really doomed the Republican party; for it "had abandoned its old claim to be founded on a moral principle and was frankly basing its claim to usefulness as a party solely on the protective principle—the protection of the privileged class." And when the law was put into effect, "the chief means by which the power of this subsidized party had been continued fell to the ground. Samson had overthrown the pillars, and the structure could not stand." After uttering some very trenchant remarks anent the misdoings of the Republican party,—the revision of the tariff downward (?); the attempt to bind the sins of the party on a scapegoat, Speaker Cannon; the passage by the House of Representatives of a bill adding \$45,000,000 to our pension roll—

Mr. Page comes to a discussion of the question, "What will the Democratic party do with the chance now offered it?" Will it quarrel over the loaves and fishes, or will the vision of the future lend it the self-restraint and wisdom it so sorely needs?

As to the Speakership, "it goes without saying that no Speaker should be chosen who does not recognize the fundamental right of the people to have their legislation based on due deliberation and discussion." And, in passing, Mr. Page warns the Democratic leaders that "no nostrum in the form of placing the Speakership in 'commission' through elective committees or enlarging the Committee on Rules will cure the canker which has been destroying representative government in the national assembly." He adds:

That evil which has grown so markedly of late that men have given it a name, "Cannonism," must be arrested by the House itself, which should adopt a system of rules adequate to the situation and resilient enough to be ever responsive to the will of the majority. . . . The majority is responsible to the country. The Speaker should be responsive to the majority. . . . One fact is plain. They must restore the lost principle of representative government in the House of Representatives. The people wish it. And this done, they must proceed promptly and honestly to carry out the pledges they have made to the people and abolish privilege. They must boldly cut protection down to the lowest point allowable by our economic conditions, and they must do it promptly. They were elected to do this fundamental thing. No galvanizing of dead issues will take its place.

The Democrats are reminded that this is not the first occasion that the door of opportunity has been opened to them and they have shut it upon themselves. "Let them remember the 'landslide' of 1892 and its consequences. The same thing may easily occur again. By 1912 the shattered and shaken forces of Privilege will have recovered from their overthrow and the fight will have to be made over again. Only by uniting on the fundamental principles and making mutual concessions as to personal interests can the Democracy hope to win." Though we are drifting into new political seas, we have a chart by which we may steer safely—the Constitution. Mr. Page summarizes the situation in the following paragraph:

In fine, one thing appears to be clear: that if the Democratic party is to secure the confidence of the people as the trustee of this Government, it can accomplish it in only one way: by standing forth as the champion of their rights to the limits of the Constitution and its due amendments. . . . If it attempt to fling itself into the arms of a class, whether of capitalists or of laborists, it is lost. The party of the future is the party that shall

stand for all the people and their rights under the law—for true Democracy and the Constitution.

One cheering feature is that for the first time in many years there is a choice of leaders, any one of whom will command respect and meet the most exacting standard as the representative of the national Democracy.

THE STATESMAN AND THE STUDENT—SOME NEW VIEWS ON POLITICS

THE new Governor of New Jersey in his presidential address to the American Political Science Association, printed in the *American Political Science Review*, voices some new views on the science of politics which will well repay thoughtful consideration. He defines this science to be "the accurate and detailed observation of the processes by which the lessons of experience are brought into the field of consciousness, transmuted into active purposes, put under the scrutiny of discussion, sifted, and at last given determinate form in law." He does not understand how some students of politics get along without literature, or without art, or without any of the means by which men have sought to picture to themselves what their days mean, or to represent to themselves the voices that are forever in their ears as they go their doubtful journey. If, in reading history for the "facts," they miss the "deepest facts of all, the spiritual experiences, the visions of the mind, the aspirations of the spirit that are the pulse of life," he does not see how they can understand the facts or know what really moves the world. Politics, he says, "is of the very stuff of life. Its motives are interlaced with the whole fiber of experience, private and public. Its relations are intensely human, and generally intimately personal."

Mr. Wilson's topic is "The Law and the Facts"; and he shows that whereas there was a time when nations seemed to move forward in mass, all together, their internal interests, at any rate, linked in a reasonably manifest fashion, in our day, on the contrary, there is an extraordinary differentiation. Interests have their own separate development; and the relations that have come to rule in our day in the field of law seem to be the relations of interests, rather than of individuals. In the case of the United States the development of its law has been a rapid development of

individual forces—a régime of utter individualism.

The forces as well as the men have acted independently, of their own initiative, at their own choice, in their own way. And law has not drawn them together. Our national policy has been a policy of stimulation, but of miscellaneous stimulation. Any one who clamored for legislative aid and brought the proper persuasive influences to bear could get assistance and encouragement. It was everybody for everything upon a disordered field. There was no attempt to coördinate. Our legislation has been atomistic, piecemeal, makeshift.

To find the common interest; to take the laws, the separate forces, the eager competing interests, the disordered *dissecta membra* of a system which is no system and build them together into a whole which shall be something more than a mere sum of the parts—this is the task of the new statesmanship and of students of political science. Mr. Wilson recognizes the fact that the statesman and the student of political science have not hitherto often been partners.

The statesman has looked askance upon the student—at any rate in America, and has too often been justified, because the student did not perceive the real scope and importance of what he was set to do, and overlooked much of the great field from which he should have drawn his facts,—was not a student of thought and affairs, but merely a reader of books and documents. But the partnership is feasible, with a change in the point of view; and the common interest must somehow be elucidated and made clear, if the field of action is not to be as confused as the field of thought.

I do not mean that the statesman must have a body of experts at his elbow. He cannot have. There is no body of experts. There is no such thing as an expert in human relationships. I mean merely that the man who has the time, the discrimination, and the sagacity to collect and comprehend the principal facts and the man who must act upon them must draw near to one another and feel that they are engaged in a common enterprise. The student must look upon his studies more like a human being, and the man of action must approach his conclusions more like a student.

The fact must not be lost sight of that business is no longer a private matter. In our day it is generally conducted by great companies and corporations existing only by express license of law and for the convenience of society. Law is therefore accommodating itself to the impulses of bodies of men, rather than to those of individuals. As experience becomes more and more aggregate, law must be more and more organic, institutional, constructive. And this translation of experience into law is not a purely intellectual process.

Governor Wilson does not like the term political science. "Human relationships, whether in the family or in the state, in the counting house or in the factory, are not in any proper sense the subject-matter of science. They are stuff of insight and sympathy and spiritual comprehension. I prefer the term 'politics,' therefore, to include both the statesmanship of thinking and the statesmanship of action."

Nothing interprets but vision; and ours is a function of interpretation. Nothing perceives but the spirit when you are dealing with the intricate life of men. . . . Sympathy is your real key to the riddle of life. . . . Look at men as at human beings struggling for existence. . . . Such and

such are the conditions of law and effort and rivalry amidst which they live, such and such are their impediments, their sympathies, their understandings with one another. See in them their habits as they live and perhaps you will discern their errors of method, their errors of motive, their confusions of purpose, and the assistance the wise legislator might afford them. . . . Your real statesman is first of all a great human being, with an eye for all the great field upon which men like himself struggle towards better things. . . . He is a guide, a comrade, a mentor, a servant, a friend of mankind. May not the student of politics be the same?

Mr. Wilson maintains that if you know your people you can lead them. Study them and you may know them. But they must be studied not as congeries of interests, but as a body of human souls. In such an atmosphere of thought and association even corporations may seem instrumentalities, not objects in themselves; and the means may presently appear whereby they may be made the servants, not the masters, of the people. The facts are precedent to all remedies; and the facts in this field are spiritually perceived. Law is subsequent to the facts, but the law and the facts stand related, not as cause and effect, but, rather, as life and its interpretation.

THE JAPANESE IN HAWAII,—BY A JAPANESE

"HAWAII is the paradise of Japanese." This is the opinion of Mr. K. Tsutsuda, a resident of Honolulu, who writes in a recent issue of the *Sinkoron*, a popular Tokyo monthly. In April, 1910, the population of Hawaii aggregated 191,909, of which 99,663 were Japanese. As against this Japanese population, the native Hawaiians numbered only 26,099, and the Chinese 21,699, while there was but a sprinkling of Americans. Of the remainder, a great many are Portuguese. In the city of Honolulu alone, we are told, there are 10,000 Japanese pursuing all sorts of trades. The Japanese writer continues:

The exclusion agreement entered into between Washington and Tokyo has, of course, proved a severe blow to the Japanese in Hawaii, especially those engaged in business whose prosperity depends upon Japanese patronage. Yet the agreement has not been wholly without good results. For one thing, the birth-rate among the Japanese has increased considerably. This is due to the fact that the new agreement, while prohibiting the coming of laborers, admits women who are the wives of those already residing in Hawaii. The result is that while male adult Japanese are decreasing, the number of female adult Japanese has been steadily increasing. This new situation has redounded favorably upon the moral atmosphere of the Japanese colonies.

The American Government is, the writer believes, fully alive to the serious significance involved in the rapid increase of native-born Japanese children since the enforcement of the exclusion agreement, and is trying to find means to release Hawaii from inevitable Japanese domination. To Mr. Tsutsuda, however, it appears that the native-born Japanese would prove much more desirable to the United States than those who are irrevocably wedded to the traditions and ideas of the Mikado's empire. It is quite possible, he says, that the Japanese born in Hawaii will no more cherish affection for the native land of their parents, and the patriotic Japanese residents have already begun to view this tendency with serious apprehension.

One of the important features of the Japanese colonies in Hawaii is the maintenance by them of well-appointed schools. As to this we are informed:

At present there are some 6400 Japanese children attending public schools maintained by the Hawaiian authorities. These children, besides attending the American schools, spend two or three hours every day in Japanese schools, where instructions are given in Japanese. There are 102 primary schools and a high school, all established and maintained by the Japanese.

OUR ARCHITECT PRESIDENT

THAT architects should never speak the name of Thomas Jefferson without lifting their hats, is the sentiment expressed by Mr. M. Stapley in the *Architectural Record*, at the close of a striking tribute to the architectural achievements and skill of the third President of the United States. Architecture was Jefferson's hobby and his pride; and in the 25,000 letters written by him between 1770 and 1826 are numberless references to it. That his favorite model for study and imitation was the Roman temple at Nîmes, he himself has left on record; also, that he had Palladio's great book. But beyond these facts, where he learned all he knew about architecture remains a matter for speculation. At eighteen he graduated from William and Mary College, proficient in the classics, higher mathematics, and natural sciences; and then he studied law. It must have been about this time that he added Italian, music, and architecture. His first building was his residence, Monticello, begun in 1770, when he was but twenty-six years old, of which Mr. Stapley says:

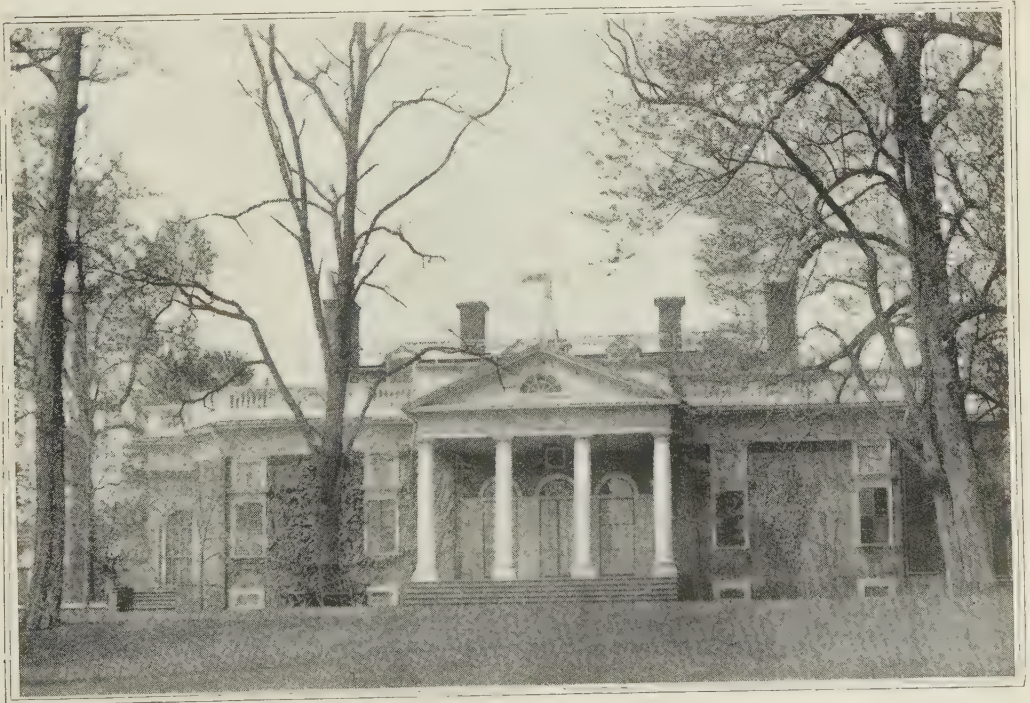
That such bigness of conception and thoroughness of detail could be produced by a young man still in the experimental stage seems incredible to the architect of to-day, who looks back over his

own years of study and training, his early mistakes, his dependence on contractor, engineer, and landscape architect, and wonders how Jefferson not only planned and supervised Monticello, but was personally responsible for such practical phases as heating, ventilation, plumbing and draining. He planned the farm buildings, and the laying out of all the roads and bridle-paths around the place. In addition, he trained all his own workmen, and even made experts of several of his slaves, whom he later set free to earn their living at the trades he taught them.

In 1782 the Marquis de Chastellux visited Jefferson; and he has left the following description of Monticello:

The house, of which Mr. Jefferson was the architect and often the workman, is elegant and in the Italian taste. It consists of one large pavilion, the entrance to which is by two porticoes ornamented by pillars. The ground floor is mainly a large lofty salon. . . . Above this is a library of the same form. Two small wings, with only a ground floor and an attic story, are joined to this pavilion and communicate with the kitchen offices, etc., that form a kind of basement underneath a terrace. . . . Mr. Jefferson is the first American who has consulted the fine arts to know how he should shelter himself from the weather.

Monticello's chief interest for the architect is that it makes a three-story house



MONTICELLO, JEFFERSON'S HOME, NEAR CHARLOTTESVILLE

(Built from the plans, and under the direct supervision, of the owner)

appear like one lofty story, the second-story windows being entirely suppressed on the garden side. Jefferson devised many unique schemes for his own rooms, such as a bedroom extending through two stories, and a semi-octagonal office or study. There were no Negro cabins about the mansion as on other plantations, but under it was "a veritable catacomb-kitchen (with ducts to carry off the odors of cooking), cisterns, bins for fruit, cider, and wood," while the servants had "picturesque quarters seventy-five feet east of the house opening out under a long arcade onto a lower sunny terrace." Altogether the place took seventeen years to build.

But the greatest of Jefferson's architectural undertakings is the University of Virginia. All his drawings, plans, and estimates, which have been preserved, show how carefully he planned every little detail.

Cellars, and foundation walls, windows, doors, roofs, chimneys, floors, partitions, stairs, the very bricks and timber, were all estimated with professional precision. . . . He sadly complained to Madison that there was not a builder in all Virginia who was capable of drawing the orders. . . . As over forty years before at Monticello, he personally trained his brickmakers, masons, carpenters, and even designed their tools, and taught them the novel way of covering a roof with tin.

Architects generally do not appreciate the thoroughness of Jefferson's work. Some of them only notice his peculiarities of construction, even going so far as to attribute at least one of them to forgetfulness on the part of the sage of Monticello. But, as Mr. Stapley remarks, if these devices of Jefferson's were less ingenious than they really are, it is, after all, somewhat paltry to bask in the warmth and remember only the spots on the sun.

DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS, THE NOVELIST

"THERE are, unfortunately, few in this country to-day who are even trying to do the sort of work that he [Mr. Phillips] is doing. And the fact that he does it with apparent ease, and has reached the point where he is doing it with triumphant strength, promises well for the future. Let us hope that 'The Husband's Story' is the harbinger of a long series of volumes equally sincere and vital and technically equally admirable." These words, from an article by Mr. Calvin Winter in the *Bookman*, have an especially pathetic interest, appearing, as they do, after the untimely death at the hands of an assassin of the writer to whom they refer. Mr. Phillips at the time of his decease was in his forty-fourth year, having been born, at Madison, Ind., October 31, 1867. He had been writing since 1887, but it was not till 1901 that he produced his first novel, "The Great God, Success."

In the article under notice Mr. Winter frankly recognizes, in the first place, that Mr. Phillips "is a rather important factor in the development of American fiction at the present day." Among the half-dozen contemporary novelists who devoted themselves to studying and depicting the big ethical and social problems of their own country, "none was more in earnest than Mr. Phillips, none striving more patiently to do the thing in the best, most forceful, most craftsman-like manner." At the same time, it is to be noted that the author developed his tech-

nique rather slowly, so that of all his novels there are only just a few that are "of a quality which no serious student of present-day fiction can afford to neglect." Propounding the question, "Why is it that so many of Mr. Phillips' books contain more of promise than of fulfilment?" Mr. Winter thinks that the answer is simply this: "that Mr. Phillips in his methods of work reverses the usual process followed by writers of the epic type by finding his germ idea in a single character or incident and building from these, instead of starting with some ethical principle or psychological problem and then searching for characters and incidents that would best illustrate it." In his critic's view, the real fault of Mr. Phillips' method, the real weakness of even his best achievements, is that "he is not merely the clear-eyed and impartial observer of life: he is always a partisan and a reformer. He is so keenly interested in the problems that he is setting forth that he cannot keep himself and his ideas out of them."

Mr. Winter analyzes a number of the late author's works, some of his criticisms of which may be epitomized as follows:

"The Second Generation" may be recommended to a reader approaching Mr. Phillips for the first time, because it admirably illustrates his strongest qualities, his ability to give you the sense of life and motion and the clash of many interests. . . . "Old Wives for New" is unquestionably one of Mr. Phillips' important books; and there is probably no other American novel that gives us with such direct and unflinching

clairvoyance the sordid, repellent, intimate little details of a mistaken marriage that slowly but surely culminate in a sort of physical nausea and an inevitable separation. . . . "The Fashionable Adventures of Joshua Craig" is a piece of cheap caricature, and shows that even yet the author is weak in the power of self-criticism. . . . "White Magic" is simply an innocuous little love story told with rather more explosive violence than the theme warrants. . . . "The Hungry Heart" and "The Husband's Story" are the two books that exhibit the author's ripest powers. As a piece of careful construction, the former volume deserves high praise. We get within a little world of four people a sense of universality of theme and interest, an impression of learning not the secrets of a few isolated lives, but of much that is big and vital about man and woman. The latter book is the type that we have long had a right to expect from Mr. Phillips. It is a study of a marriage that failed. The reason that it is a better and a bigger book than any of his others is not because of his theme, but because of his workmanship. It shows, between the lines, that while the husband throws all the blame upon his wife, the fault is as largely his as it is hers. To have conceived the story was something in itself to be proud of, but to have conceived of telling it through the husband's lips was a stroke of genius.

Summarizing his own views, Mr. Winter, the author of the article, says:

Mr. Phillips is a writer with many qualities and some defects—like all men who have it in them to do big things. But it would be easy to forgive more serious faults than his in any one possessing his breadth and depth of interest in the serious problems of life and his outspoken fearlessness in handling them. There are, unfortunately, few in this country to-day who are even trying to do the sort of work that he is doing. And the fact that he does it with apparent ease, and has reached the point where he is doing it with triumphant strength, promises well for the future.

Sincere will be the regret throughout the large circle of the late author's readers that



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THE LATE DAVID GRAHAM PHILLIPS

the hope, expressed by his critic, that "The Husband's Story" may be "but the first of a long series of equal strength and big-ness," can never be realized.

ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS

A SLENDER talent, but a very refined and individual one,—observes the literary critic of the *New York Times*,—went out of American letters with the death (on January 28) of Mrs. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps Ward. Continuing, this critic says:

Sensitive, idealistic, intense, her work was so markedly the out-speaking of her character that one who had never seen her could have formed from it a fairly distinct and accurate conception of her personality. It was inevitable that her appeal, save for two or three of her books, should be to a rather limited audience, but it was an audience that loved her much and upon which she left a deep impress. Her early work was perhaps her best, or, at least, it found the readiest and largest body of admirers. "Gates Ajar," published when she was but twenty-four

years old (in 1868), went through twenty editions in its first twelve-month, enjoyed a steady sale for twenty years or more, and was translated into several European languages. Its remarkable popularity was due to the fact that it answered a need of the time, that it appeared at the opportune moment, when the modern demand for more humanity in religion, for something that would touch more nearly the ordinary human understanding and human feeling, was beginning to make itself felt. And for that reason it fed and satisfied thousands upon thousands of hungry souls. But whether her theme was of this world or the next, Mrs. Ward had always the uplifted vision and an unflinching sense of the sacredness of the soul's ideal. She was fond of embodying this loyalty to an ideal in her heroines and of leading them, in devotion to it, over stony paths of renunciation. Her novels and stories, except those that deal with the future life, have always had their warmest admirers among young women of educa-

tion and refinement, and two generations of these have eagerly read "The Story of Avis," "Doctor Zay," "Friends," and some of her later books.

Commenting on the fact that Mrs. Ward began to write for the press at the age of thirteen and that she was scarcely twenty-five when "The Gates Ajar" made her famous, the *Independent* says editorially: "There is no parallel that occurs to us to her early maturity." Furthermore, the writer of the editorial believes, "for pure ability as well as for literary power, she stood, notwithstanding her lifelong invalidism, at the head of our women writers." He concludes:

It is more than a literary fellowship, it is a personal affection which a multitude of our readers have had for Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, because of the fellowship of heart which they have for one whose writings have turned their thoughts outward and upward.

Elizabeth Stuart Phelps was in her sixty-seventh year when she died. It will be well to recall at this time the main facts of her life.

She was born in 1844 in Boston, the daughter of the Rev. Austin Phelps, who later became professor at the Andover Theological Seminary; her mother was the oldest daughter of Moses Stuart, also of Andover. At the age of thirteen Elizabeth Phelps began to write for the *Youth's Companion*, and before she was twenty had published in *Harper's Magazine*. Her first important work was "The Gates Ajar," a spiritual romance prompted by the loss of a brother in the Civil War. Her other works include: "The Gypsy Series" (4 vols.), "Men, Women and Ghosts," "The Trotty Book," "Hedged In," "The Silent Partner," "What to Wear," "Trotty's Wedding-Tour and Story Book," "Poetic Studies," "The Story of Avis," "Sealed Orders," "Friends," "Doctor Zay," "Beyond the Gates," "Songs of the Silent World," "Old Maids, and Burglars in Paradise," "The Madonna of the Tubs," "The Gates Between," "Jack the Fisherman," "The Struggle for Immortality," "A Lost Hero" (with her husband), "Come Forth" (with same), "The Master of the Magicians" (with same), "Fourteen to One," "Donald Marcy," "A Singular Life," "The Supply at St. Agatha's," "Chapters from a Life," "The Story of Jesus Christ," "Within the Gates," "Successors to Mary the First," "Avery," "Trixy," "The Man in the Case," "Walled In," "Though Life Us Do Part," "Jonathan and David," and "The Oath of Allegiance."



MRS. ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS WARD

(Mrs. Ward, who died on January 28, in her sixty-seventh year, was the author of many stories)



Photograph by Schwemmer

THE CORN DANCE—ACOMA'S GREAT ANNUAL EVENT

ACOMA—OUR OLDEST INHABITED SETTLEMENT

ABOUT seventy miles west of Albuquerque in New Mexico, and about eighteen miles southwest of Laguna on the Santa Fé Railroad, the traveler, on rounding a point of rocks in the trail from the latter town, suddenly finds himself in view of an oblong sandstone rock rising 400 feet or higher above the plain, to which his driver points excitedly, exclaiming "Mesa Encantada!" (the Enchanted Mesa). Here in the remote past was the home of the Acomas, "the people of the White Rock." Three miles away to the west, on another oblong rocky pedestal 400 feet high, is built Acoma, an Indian pueblo which has the unassailable distinction of being the oldest continuously occupied settlement in the United States. Known as Acus, Acuco, and Coco, and first mentioned by Fray Marcos de Niza in 1539, it was captured by Coronado's expedition in 1540; in 1583 it received a visit from Espejo, who gave it its present name; and here in 1598 Juan de Zaldivar with fifteen of his party was murdered by the natives, on whom in the following month Vicente, Juan's brother, took a terrible revenge, killing half the entire population of 3000, and burning a large part of the pueblo. To-day about 600 Indians occupy the mesa, which is only

accessible by three circuitous trails ending in narrow ledges of rock along the cliffs, in which are steps of stone cut ages ago. Over these trails, on the backs of the ancestors of these people, had to be brought every bit of material for the construction of the dwellings and the church, besides all the necessities of life. An interesting account by Mr. Edgar K. Miller of his visit to this unique place appears in the *Red Man*. We read:

The village proper consists of three parallel rows of adobe houses, three-story, terraced in form, and about forty feet high; nearly a hundred in all. In these dwellings lives a population of about 600 people. Entrance to the houses is made by ladders, over the roof, passing through passageways to the lower floor, or into the second terrace by doors, or up to the third terrace again by ladders. . . . I was informed that the senior members of the family live in the first story, the daughter first married gets the second terrace, and the second the third terrace. All other members have to seek quarters elsewhere, or live with the old people.

Near the edge of the mesa on the east stands the ancient adobe cathedral, built about 1600, under the floor of which, until recent years, the tribe buried its dead. Each of the two towers contains a large Spanish bell, retained in place by buckskin thongs.



A STREET OF ACOMA, THE CLIFF-BUILT CITY, OUR OLDEST INHABITED SETTLEMENT

The tribal ceremonies, religious dances, fiestas, etc., are held in the plaza, into which the two long streets of rock open. The principal dance and ceremony are held annually in September, being preceded by services in the church. After the services the sacred saint, a wooden image, is carried in parade to the dancing-ground, where it is kept under guard by two Indians with loaded rifles till

sundown. Two sets of dancers, male and female, dance alternately all day, thanking the Good Being for past prosperity and praying for bounteous crops and plenty of rain in the coming year. One of the events of the day is a ten-mile run between two factions of the tribe.

The men, more or less, dress in half-white, half-Indian style, and are engaged in herding cattle, horses, and sheep, which are owned by the whole tribe. Their lands, granted by Spain and confirmed by the United States, cover 95,792 acres. The women, who retain the pueblo shawl, dress, and buckskin leggings, spend most of their time in carrying water from the plain below, in converting corn into meal, and in making the celebrated Acoma pottery which is the best in the Southwest. Sheep manure is used for firing. Much of their subsistence comes from the sale of this pottery.

Mr. Miller entered many of the dwellings, which he found "comfortable, neat, and surprisingly clean and free from dirt." One of the homes had "a brass bed and an inviting-looking rocking-chair; several homes contained sewing-machines; but most of them had few articles of furniture."

A PRODUCT OF THE MERIT SYSTEM AT WASHINGTON

ALL right-thinking Americans must be gratified with the success of the campaign of the United States Department of Justice against bank wreckers, bucket-shops, and fraudulent stock-selling concerns, nearly one hundred of these malefactors being at the present time on the dockets for trial. It will, we think, be interesting to many readers of the REVIEW to know that this satisfactory result is due in no small degree to "the genius and industry of a young man who is hardly known outside Washington, except to the forces of evil which he has attacked and which, by offers of bribes, threats of personal violence, and the use of great political influence, have done their utmost to eliminate him from the Government service." The young man referred to is Mr. Wrisley Brown, who forms the subject of a sketch by Mr. Russell Hastings Millward in *Moody's*, and who is thus characterized by that writer:

Wrisley Brown, Special Assistant to the Attorney-General, who has the active charge of these bank prosecutions, is popularly known as one of the

"live wires" of the Taft Administration. He has not yet reached the age of twenty-eight; but prominent officials who have come in contact with him and his work state that he possesses a brilliant mind and legal attainments far beyond his years. Many convicted bank wreckers, surprised at the youthful appearance of the prosecutor who has been pitted against them, bear testimony to the fact that he is well armored with honesty, fearlessness and efficient qualifications for the duties of an exacting office.

This young legal giant comes of New England stock; but he has lived in the West long enough to absorb the virile spirit of the plains. He was trained for a career in the army, but later decided to study law. His early education was received in the public schools and the Columbian [now George Washington] University, after which he graduated at the head of a large class at the National University Law School, winning almost all the honors and prizes offered for excellence in scholarship.

Mr. Brown entered the classified Civil Service from the State of Maine in 1904, after competitive examination; and he is strictly a product of the merit system. Beginning at the foot of the Treasury ladder, his promotion was rapid, and in a few years he had become law clerk to the Comptroller of the Treasury. At the beginning of the present

administration he was promoted and transferred to the Department of Justice, mainly as the result of certain striking opinions he had written. The Attorney-General has also designated him consulting attorney of the Bureau of Investigation, known as "The New Secret Service."

Of the personal make-up of the subject of his article Mr. Millward writes:

Wrisley Brown has a most charming personality. His quiet, courteous manner little suggests the unusual aggressiveness which has marked his career, but he has the unmistakable air of earnestness which denotes the man of purpose. Extensive travel and research have developed in him the judgment of a man of long experience and ripe maturity. An indefatigable worker and a constant student of men and events, he gets results by carefully planned action without that spectacular or dramatic display which has characterized the methods of many of our famous prosecutors. He has made no attempt to cultivate the graces of the orator, but is a forceful speaker and a dangerous opponent when called into action.

Mr. Brown's record is, for a man of his youth, an extraordinary one, and his star is still in the ascendant. He is serving a great Attorney-General; and his biographer predicts that, if he reaches the growth foreshadowed by his early career, he will undoubtedly become a power to be seriously reckoned with in the future conduct of our national affairs.



Photograph by Glinedinst, Washington

MR. WRISLEY BROWN

(Special assistant to the Attorney-General, in charge of bank prosecutions)

SUFFERINGS OF THE RUSSIAN JEWS

AT such conferences as the recent biennial council of the Union of Hebrew Congregations in New York, frequent allusions are made to "the barbaric persecutions in Russia" which every year force the emigration of thousands of the Jewish subjects of the Czar. The precise nature of these persecutions and their ultimate object are discussed in the *Outlook* by Mr. Herman Rosenthal, by birth a Russian, but many years a citizen of the United States, the head of the Slavonic Department of the New York Public Library and the founder of the first agricultural colonies of Russian Jews in America.

Behind the veil of autocracy, Mr. Rosenthal tells us, "the atrocities of the Romanov dynasty have finally culminated in a tendency toward the complete extinction of the Jewish race in Russia." In three decades one and a half million Jews have been forced to leave the empire, while thousands have been killed and many more thousands maimed and plundered in a series of "po-

groms" or anti-Jewish riots, "outbreaks stimulated and countenanced by subtle governmental policy." Besides being the victim of organized violence and robbery, the Jew is hampered in his struggle for existence by numberless restrictions and special laws with their conflicting "interpretations." Ninety-five per cent. of Russia's five million Jews are herded, by rigorous statutes, into the cities of the so-called Pale of Jewish Settlement, thus being confined to an area equivalent to one two-thousandth part of the empire. They may not buy, lease or manage real estate outside of these cities, and so cannot become farmers. Jews are practically excluded from the judiciary, from professorships and other educational positions, from government service, from the navy and the gendarmerie:

Jews may serve in the army—in fact, they furnish from 30 to 40 per cent. more soldiers than their proper allotment—but no Jew may become an officer. The Jew may die for "Holy Russia,"

but he need look for no reward. Sixty thousand Jews served in the war with Japan. A ukase of 1904 promised a general right of residence within and without the Pale to all of these who should be found to have served worthily. But the Russian Government is bound by no promises. This privilege was denied even the Jewish volunteers who endured privations and sustained wounds in the defense of Port Arthur.

No Jewish soldier in a military orchestra may become a leader, and the number of Jews in any military orchestra is limited to one-third. Similarly, Jewish physicians are almost excluded from the army by a regulation limiting their number to 5 per cent. of the total:

However, at the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, the Russian military administration tore away without any regard hundreds of Jewish physicians from their civil professions and drove them to the most dangerous points of the theater of war, dismissing them immediately after the conclusion of peace.

On the other hand, while the census of 1897 proves that the Jews bear the heaviest burden of military service, the administration always manages to ascribe a deficit to them.

There is a regulation of 1886, applicable to Jews only, establishing "family responsibility" for recruits. The effect of this provision is that should any Jew whose name has been drawn as a recruit fail to report for service at the proper time, even though he may delay but a few hours, his relatives must pay a fine of 300 rubles. It makes no difference if the name of the "recruit" is that of one who emigrated years ago, or died, even in infancy; no matter what proofs may be offered, the penalty still remains.

While taxed, and heavily taxed, the Jew is not accorded "the ordinary rights of citizenship." Moreover, the innumerable special enactments concerning Jews furnish the minor officials to whom the interpretation of these restrictive laws is largely delegated, rich opportunities for graft and blackmail which they by no means neglect:

According to a calculation of Prince Urussov in his "Memoirs of a Russian Governor," the "extra

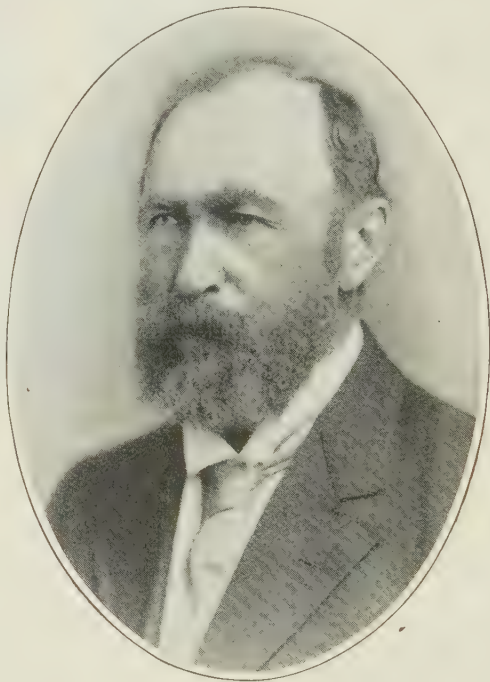
income" of the police in his government of Bessarabia alone amounted to over a million rubles annually. Most of this sum was exacted from Jews. On the basis of this statement it may be estimated that the Jews in the whole country pay annually for protection to the police officials amounts of from twenty to twenty-five million rubles. The Russian bureaucracy will certainly oppose with all its might the emancipation of the Jews, since with the repeal of exceptional laws all the special income of the police would be abolished.

Even education is denied a large proportion of the Jewish youth, who are excluded from schools and universities by laws which severely limit the percentage of Jewish students.

However, "the greatest affliction of the Russian Jews, and the cause of the recent exhibitions of governmental violence against these unfortunate people, is the limitation of the right of residence." In addition to the millions herded in the Pale,

scattered throughout the rest of the empire are about a quarter of a million Jews, some of whom have retained old rights of residence in their localities, others belonging to certain privileged classes to whom the right of general residence is accorded by law. But the whole policy of the Russian Government is to withdraw all rights of external residence, and to pack the Jews closer and closer in the great cities of the Pale.

The coveted general right of residence in any part of the Empire is accorded, by law, to Jewish veterans, merchants of the first guild, members of certain professions, and artisans pursuing their calling. But this right is withdrawn, especially from the poor and comparatively defenseless artisans, on many pretexts, and the victims are relentlessly forced back into the Pale. In recent years many privileged Jews lost their residential rights through misplaced trust in a government promise that was subsequently withdrawn. Then followed the persecutions of 1910 with all their severities. Mr. Rosen-



MR. HERMAN ROSENTHAL

(A leading authority on Russia's persecutions of the Jews)

thal instances the expulsion of 1200 Jewish heads of households with their families from Kiev and its suburbs, and brutal raids followed by expulsions of both privileged and non-privileged Jews from other localities:

Among those listed by the police for expulsion from Tula were four women of from sixty to eighty years who had long lived there. To evade expulsion they contracted fictitious marriages with old soldiers of Nicholas I, and thus secured immunity. In Tashkent forty families were

ordered out, with but three days' grace. In the middle of winter, with the thermometer far below zero, dozens of Jews were driven from Irkutsk, among them children, and men seventy years old. In Vladivostok the Governor directed that every expulsion from the capital should be communicated to the other cities of the province, so that the expelled might find no refuge. In Smolensk, in the winter of 1910, twenty-one dentists were first expelled. A goodly number of artisans followed, the order for their expulsion stating that "their applications for the right of residence have not been looked into, and until this has been done they must leave the city."

WHY THE CANAL SHOULD BE FORTIFIED

AN argument for the fortification of the Panama Canal appears in the *Forum* from the pen of Mr. Harry Albert Austin, who since 1903 has been connected with the army in a civil capacity. Mr. Austin presents the arguments on both sides of the controversy, dividing his subject into two phases: the first involving the question of our legal and moral right; the second, the question of policy. Beginning with the treaty of 1846 between this country and New Granada, he reviews the several treaties that have been made with reference to the Canal, of which the only ones now in force are the Hay-Pauncefote treaty of 1902 and the Hay-Bunau-Varilla treaty (between the United States and the Republic of Panama) made subsequently to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty. Just what our position is with regard to these two treaties is thus set forth by Mr. Austin:

This treaty [of 1902] is similar to the first Hay-Pauncefote treaty [1900] except that it is silent in regard to the right of the United States to fortify the Canal. The fact that this prohibition was stipulated in the first draft and omitted in the final ratified treaty has a significant bearing on the question of our right to fortify the Canal. As far as Great Britain is concerned, under the terms of the treaty it is not conceivable that that nation could offer any objections to our erecting fortifications if we saw fit to do so, except under the neutrality clause. . . . No mention is made in the final draft of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty as to vessels of Great Britain traversing the Canal, in case of war between the contracting parties, being exempt from blockade, detention or capture by the United States. . . . The United States is the sole guarantor of the neutrality of the Canal.

As regards the Hay-Bunau-Varilla treaty, the only provision of moment is the one stipulating that the United States shall have the right to establish fortifications, should the employment of armed forces for the safety or protection of the Canal become necessary. Mr. Bunau-Varilla himself now claims that

under this clause the United States cannot establish permanent fortifications on the Canal in times of peace.

Mr. Austin's conclusions, drawn from the arguments in favor of and against fortifying the Canal are in substance as follows:

The guarantee of neutrality carries with it, by inference if not by letter, the right to adopt such measures as may be necessary to insure that guarantee being fulfilled. In only two ways can this object be attained: by permanent fortifications or by the presence of the navy in waters contiguous to both ends of the Canal. To compel the navy to defend the Canal would be to deprive it of its principal function of acting on the offensive. With possession of the Canal during hostilities assured to us, our battle fleet would be available, within a short time, for service in either ocean. Should a sudden war occur, and the Canal fall into the hands of an enemy, we should be at a very great disadvantage if we, in order to concentrate our battle fleet and transports, were required to sail around the Horn instead of passing through the Isthmus.

Another important fact is often overlooked: in case the Canal were blockaded at one exit, our battle fleet must be able, in passing through the waterway, to debouch in battle formation; and this could not be done except under the protection of the land armament. Without land fortifications it would be possible for an enemy's fleet to approach so near the mouth of the Canal as to be able to crush our fleet in detail as it emerged.

The one unanswerable argument in favor of fortification is, that if the waterway is fortified, even though we may not be able to use it ourselves, it is an assured fact that no enemy can use it against us, and the same thing cannot be said of it if we fail to erect adequate fortifications at its entrances. As to the cost of these defenses, it is estimated that those recommended by the Panama Canal Board would involve an outlay of \$12,000,000—little more than the cost of a single *Dreadnought*, and a small sum compared with the value at stake as represented by the initial cost of the construction of the Canal.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN PORTO RICO



HON. EDWIN G. DEXTER
(Commissioner of Education in Porto Rico)

Kindergarten.....	230	Rural.....	71,630
Graded.....	39,907	High.....	970
Night.....	8,624	Special.....	92

The rural schools, by far the most numerous, are, we are told, "doing work worthy of the greatest praise," while the graded schools, maintained in each of the 66 towns and cities of the island, "compare favorably in all respects with the better systems of schools in the United States." Night schools are held in 158 buildings, and are attended mainly by adults. First-class high schools are maintained at San Juan, Ponce, and Mayaguez, each having a four-year course and sending its graduates to the University of Porto Rico. Instruction in agriculture is given by the University and by the department of education; extended courses being offered by the former, and work of an elementary nature being conducted by the latter in six supervisory districts.

Gardens are maintained in connection with the work, and in some instances the sale of the products has placed quite a fund at the disposal of the teacher for the purchase of fertilizer, implements, etc. Sugar-cane, pineapples, citrus fruits, tobacco, and vegetables are the common products.

THE American of to-day may well regard it as his proudest boast, in respect of our colonial possessions, that "education follows the flag." A most gratifying account of educational progress in Porto Rico is contributed to the *Bulletin* of the Pan American Union by the Hon. Edwin G. Dexter, Commissioner of Education in that island, who in his opening paragraph makes this remarkable statement:

Were you to visit the island of Porto Rico and traverse any considerable portion of its more than 1,000 kilometers of macadamized roads, next to the beauty of the scenery and the boundless fertility of the soil you would be impressed with the number and perfection of its public-school buildings. They seem to be everywhere; some large and imposing, containing more than 20 rooms and costing many thousands of dollars; others, the simplest of structures—thatch-roofed and primitive in every detail, but each glorified in the purpose to which it is devoted. The island contains nearly 1,000 of these temples of learning, great and small, and to them during the past school year more than 120,000 children turned for instruction. That means that, of the entire population of Porto Rico, 1 in every 9 went to school, a larger proportion than for any other people of the Western hemisphere, save those of the United States and Canada.

For the year 1909-10 the actual number of pupils enrolled in the public schools was 121,453; and their distribution was as follows:

The salaries of the teachers are considerably higher than the average salary of teachers in the United States. In the graded schools three classes of teachers give instruction: teachers of English, English graded teachers, and Spanish graded teachers. The first named are all Americans; the second class are Porto Ricans. The graded schools are practically on an English basis, instruction in 90 per cent. of them being given in English.

Educational organization is influencing the lives and customs of the people in many ways. Within the past two years 233 public-school libraries have been established. In many cases these are simply strong boxes—actually condemned army kits—each containing 50 to 100 books, in circulation among the rural schools. The Commissioner appeals for more books, especially those printed in Spanish. Another important educational movement is the establishment of playgrounds. Three years ago there was but one on the island; to-day there are 45 with an equipment representing more than \$20,000. These playgrounds, used by thousands upon thousands of the youth of both sexes, are, in the opinion of the Commissioner, developing a sturdiness of physique hitherto unknown to children in the tropics.

The public-school system of the island culminates in the University of Porto Rico, of which, although the institution is not directly under the department of education, the Commissioner is ex officio president and chancellor. The University owns about 200 acres of land, of which 100 are at Rio Piedras, seven miles from San Juan. Here nine buildings are occupied by the Colleges of Liberal Arts and Agriculture and by the normal department. The remaining 100 acres are at Mayaguez. No buildings have as yet been erected on this property. About 300 students are enrolled in the normal department, among them several from North and South America; and the institution bids fair to become a veritable pan-American university.

FOREST FIRES IN NORTH AMERICA — A GERMAN VIEW

THE enormous conflagrations that are of frequent occurrence in the United States, and our colossal annual fire-losses, have always been a matter of wonder to Europeans, and it is not remarkable therefore that the unusually great devastations of the past year have called forth considerable comment in the European press. In a recent number of *Naturwissenschaftliche Wochenschrift* the subject of forest fires in North America is discussed by Professor Deckert of Frankfort, a distinguished forester, who has traveled all over this continent, and is acquainted by personal experience with the conditions of which he speaks. His views on the subject, from the standpoint of one trained in forestry as it is practiced in Germany, will be of special interest to Americans at the present time of wrestling with the problems of conservation. Surprising as it may appear, Professor Deckert does not take altogether the customary view of the annual loss being almost entirely chargeable to our natural carelessness and wastefulness of superabundant riches, but candidly states his conviction that both the extent of the forests and climatic conditions



PUTTING OUT THE FOREST FIRES OF LAST SUMMER IN WASHINGTON STATE

render it quite impossible to protect our forests as they are protected in Germany and middle Europe generally.

Dr. Deckert proceeds to enumerate the principal causes of fire and their elimination. First of all comes the accidental spread of camp-fires. These fires are absolutely necessary, and cannot be prevented, and on the other hand to find a spot in a forest absolutely safe for them is simply an impossibility. The author adds that he himself on one occasion narrowly escaped responsibility for the spreading of a camp-fire which would have destroyed an extensive forest area in Arizona. In this case great care had been taken in advance; but the opposite is apparently the rule.

Next in importance come the intentional fires for clearing or burning brush or rubbish. These also may be classed as necessary, especially in Oregon or Washington, where the litter is so great that it is impossible to dispose of it without the use of fire and dynamite. It is also common in the Southeast, on the Atlantic Coast, for the planters to burn over the ground to get new areas for cotton or grain plantations.

A former common cause of fires was the intentional fire set by Indians and white hunters merely to scare up game and without regard to damage to the forest. But, says the author, there is a good prospect that the days of this sort of vandalism are numbered.

Malicious incendiarism has proved a difficult matter to handle, as incendiaries can easily make their escape in our great distances before the fire is discovered, but fortunately the number of such fires in this country has never been great.

Finally, lightning is a cause which must be reckoned with, especially in the West, where it is a frequent cause of fires, since the storms there yield hardly any rain. Because of the rain which falls, lightning is a negligible factor in the East and in Europe. It has been determined that in the San Francisco Mountains of Arizona about 60 per cent. of all fires are caused by lightning.

As to fire prevention and checking, it is pointed out that the areas to be watched and patrolled are simply enormous, and that wide stretches are unprovided with roads and trails and practically inaccessible. This makes fire-fighting very difficult. Moreover, on account of the rugged nature of the country effective fire-lanes cannot always be maintained.

Professor Deckert considers the climate a principal factor in the situation. Our cli-

mate is not only much drier than the European, but in the West the drought is long-continuing, and even in the East the annual rainfall is unevenly distributed, so as to give long periods of drought. Such droughts render forests very inflammable, and cause the unpreventable fire loss to multiply in importance. But hardly any one, says the author, would advocate restriction of the forest service because of natural difficulties. Rather after this latest disaster will measures be taken in the future to double or treble the number of rangers in the dangerous districts and in dry seasons. In Germany double precautions are taken in dry years, but the maximum of possible precaution in America is demanded every year. Once a fire gets well started in a dry year, its extinguishment by artificial means is to be considered hopeless.

The character of the timber has also great influence on the spread of fires. The conifers on account of their pitch-content are much more inflammable when dry than other trees, but on the other hand some species, like the yellow pine, offer a great resistance to fire, and when in a pure stand frequently escape being killed. For this reason in arid States such as Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and New Mexico, where the yellow pine prevails, destruction by fire is seldom so complete as in less arid States like Idaho, Montana, Washington, and Oregon, where the stands are usually mixed.

In the East it is much easier to maintain an effective fire-guard than in the West, not only because of the greater natural moisture, but because of the natural fire-lanes provided by rivers, lakes, and marshes and the more numerous roads, trails and railways; but even in the pine woods of Maine and the Middle West there is great danger, as the forest floor is still drier in the late summer than in Europe.

In the great turpentine woods which cover the coast-plain from New Jersey to Texas, the large pitch-content of the trees is offset by broad stretches of marsh-land along the streams.

In the southern Appalachians, where hardwoods predominate, fires are frequent, yet on account of the greenness of the fuel they seldom do much damage, and are principally brush fires. In the northern Appalachians, on the other hand, where conifers predominate, fires are of a more devastating character.

The conditions in the Canadian West are the same as in the neighboring portions of the United States, the fires during the past year having reached the same degree of destructiveness, and for like reasons.

SUBMARINE CABLES AND NATIONAL DEFENSE

SUBMARINE cables, so essential a factor in the commercial activities of a nation in times of peace, become of paramount importance in times of war. An anonymous article on this topic in the *Revue de Paris*, which bears internal evidence of having been written by some one well posted in his subject, tends to show that there is not complete unanimity among the powers concerning the neutrality of telegraph lines. According to the convention of 1875, agreed to at St. Petersburg, and which is the code of the Universal Telegraph Union, "every power has the right to suspend international telegraph service for a specified time, if it deem necessary, either generally or on certain lines and for certain kind of messages, on condition that it notifies the fact immediately to each of the other contracting powers." The St. Petersburg convention applied to land lines only. The question of neutralizing submarine cables in time of war was agitated by France thirty years ago. According to the *Revue* writer:

In order to regulate questions of international law relative to submarine cables, France in 1882 arranged a conference. Twenty-six countries were represented; but the results were unimportant. The convention of 1884 applied only to times of peace. As regards times of war, it contented itself with declaring (Article 15): "It is understood that the stipulations of the convention impose no restraint on the liberty of action of belligerents."

At this conference the French delegates essayed to secure complete neutrality for submarine cables, which, says the article under notice, was in accord with the view expressed by President Buchanan in the first telegram, transmitted in 1858, from the New World to the Old. But the English delegates would not so much as admit that the question was open to discussion. And, deeming Article 15 insufficiently explicit, they adopted the following memorandum with reference thereto: "Her Majesty's Government interprets Article 15 in the sense that in time of war a belligerent signatory to this convention shall be free to act with regard to submarine cables as if this convention did not exist." From 1871, however, England had regarded submarine cables as contraband of war. She would make war on cables; and, according to their technical reviews, the Germans and Italians are similarly actuated. As regards France herself, the *Revue* writer states that at the time of the discussion relative to the Brest-Dakar line, a high authority averred

that from the military point of view cables had not the importance usually ascribed to them, inasmuch as "on the announcement of a declaration of war, whether by France or by a foreign nation, all the cables would be cut."

To cut a cable, however, is by no means easy. It is necessary to search for it at some distance from the shore and at great depths; for near the land the cable is furnished with a strong casing which makes it very heavy and capable of resisting enormous traction. Besides, were the cable damaged near the shore, the position of the rupture would be quickly detected, and the repairs could be made with very little delay. To lift a cable at sea for the purpose of cutting it presents the same difficulties that are encountered in destroying or repairing one. Proper equipment and a trained personnel are necessary; and war-vessels are ill adapted to the work, which calls for the employment of regular cable-ships. Here, it appears from the article under notice, England has a distinct advantage over the other powers. Owing, as she does, at least three-fourths of all the cable-ships, she is, also, better informed as to the positions of the various cables, and could therefore more easily than any other power cut the lines of an enemy. And as regards herself, in order to isolate England from the world, it would only be necessary to cut the forty cables that originate on her coasts. In almost every respect England would seem to lead the world in cable enterprise. Thus of the 2053 cables in operation, 1651 belong to states, and 402 to private companies. Of the latter companies, twenty-two are English, and their lines aggregate 155,000 miles, or about 65 per cent. of the total. (There are five American or Anglo-American companies, with cables aggregating 56,000 miles.) It is apparent that these represent a powerful aid to the national defense. The *Revue* has this recognition of the perspicacity of France's neighbor across the Channel:

Not only has England from the first had faith in the financial results of submarine telegraphy, but it has realized what a marvelous means of world domination a well-conceived network of cables would be. The foresight of her government has seconded the energy of her business men, and has thus created innumerable English telegraphic posts, which are centers of commercial influence in times of peace and invaluable for the transmission of orders in times of war. At the War Office a special bureau is devoted to cable matters. It watches the normal operations of the various com-

panies, and studies the strategic interest attaching to new developments. No cable is laid without its sanction; and thus it can modify projects for lines in the interest of the Empire. Moreover, the English lines touching foreign countries have English bureaus, and England can therefore secure the earliest information not only concerning her own affairs, but also regarding matters

which the other powers would wish to reserve to themselves.

Truly has it been said that in the struggle for the supremacy of the sea the possession of submarine cables is as important as that of coaling-stations.

HAS OUR ENGINEERS' NAVY MADE GOOD?

IN Cleveland's first administration, during the secretaryship of William C. Whitney, the new United States navy was begun by the purchase abroad of the plans of one battleship and three cruisers. Till then, all cruising ships had had sail power only; and our navy had been operated so long under an old system that neither architects nor engineers were conversant with modern construction for high-speed ships. Since Whitney's time the transformation has been rapid; ship after ship has been replaced; and the navy has regained the effectiveness it had at the close of the Civil War, the recovery, however, being under totally different conditions. The change from the old types to the new having been entirely one of engineering, a complete reorganization of the personnel to fit the modern requirements has been necessitated. The education and training of men for service afloat have had to be modified. Early in 1899, what is known as the Personnel bill was passed by Congress. This bill, writes Prof. Ira N. Hollis, in the *Engineering Magazine*,

had many good features, the principal ones being an amalgamation of the line and engineer corps into one corps, the establishment of a grade of warrant machinists, and the correction of inequalities as to pay. . . . The measure was framed in reality for two reasons: one was to cause every line officer to pass through an engineering apprenticeship; and the other was to break up the eternal fight between the line and staff. This fight had reappeared in every session of Congress from the close of the Civil War.

The line in swallowing up the engineer corps brought itself into correspondence with modern conditions by converting itself into a larger engineer corps. In taking the engineer corps into the line, the navy reserved all the older officers who had been chief engineers, exclusively for engineering duties, and they have served to train the young line officers to succeed them. The younger members of the engineer corps were taken bodily into the line in every sense of the word.

The Naval Academy quickly changed its course to suit the new requirements for officers; and became an engineering school of the highest class; the training of enlisted

men was altered to meet the new demands; and by the Personnel bill, the promotion of good practical mechanics from the ranks to a grade of warrant machinist was made possible. In exceptional cases, warrant officers may obtain by examination and record the same commissions as those held by graduates of the Naval Academy. Thus to-day any fireman finds the way open to a commission in the line of the navy, if he has the youth, ability, and energy to obtain it. Professor Hollis' article is intended mainly, he says, as an inquiry whether the Personnel bill of 1899 has accomplished what was hoped.

The chief objection to the new legislation was that "no officer can be everything on board ship." Congress never contemplated anything of the kind. No navy of sailors could become a navy of engineers simply by act of Congress. At first, the provisions of the Personnel bill seemed unsatisfactory for three reasons: (1) The change at a single stride from sails to a modern system of battleships was so sudden that it seemed like upsetting the whole service; (2) for a number of years after the Spanish War there was a great scarcity of officers; and (3) the officers into whose hands the new organization fell were either lukewarm or distinctly opposed to it.

The consequence of this attitude was that in engineering matters the navy drifted for five or six years, and the criticism against the outcome of the Personnel bill was entirely justified. It looked for a while as if the Department would be obliged to employ civilian engineers or to extend the duties of the corps of naval constructors to the design, direction, and management of machinery. That time has, however, passed by, and the past four years have demonstrated the capacity of the line to cope with the whole question.

Naval engineering may be divided into four parts: (1) The design of ships and machinery, including guns and propelling engines; (2) construction; (3) operation; (4) maintenance and repairs.

The repairs to the hull and fixed parts of a ship must commonly be done at a naval station. The

repairs to machinery, so far as possible, should be done on board ship by the crew, to the end that a fleet of ships may be self-sustaining in foreign waters. The general overhauling and extensive repairs in fitting for sea are necessarily a navy-yard operation.

Secretary Newberry (who served as head of the Department for a few months previous to Mr. Meyer's incumbency) reorganized the navy-yards by placing all work under the management of a naval constructor. This was a distinct improvement; but, as Professor Hollis points out, the managers of the yards were taken from the corps of naval constructors and, as a consequence, a large number of men fully as able to direct navy-yard operations as they were, were thrown out of work. This naturally aroused intense opposition to the new plan. Secretary Meyer appointed a board to study navy-yard conditions; and on its recommendations, two departments were created in every yard for construction and repairs—one for the hull and the other for the machinery—both under a well-selected commandant. Many other important changes have been introduced by Secretary Meyer, under whose administration a new organization of the navy may be

said to have been carried out. Professor Hollis cites three interesting items of results. In the merchant marine, the annual cost of repairs to machinery exceeds 9 per cent.; in the navy it is only 2 per cent. of the value. In old ships of the line, such as the *Chicago* and *Boston* of the period 1880-1890, the average coal consumption per indicated horsepower for five ships was 2.67; in five ships for the period 1905-1910, such as the *North Dakota* and *Birmingham*, the consumption was but 1.736. The coal consumed for steaming purposes per knot, including tugs, colliers, and torpedo craft, was: in 1907, 1027 pounds; in 1910, 740 pounds only. The total engineering expenses for each horsepower in the navy were: in 1907, 6.04; in 1910, 3.97.

To the charge that the explosion on the *Bennington* was due to the turning of the machinery over to amateurs, Professor Hollis replies that the organization was probably bad and the officers did not look after their work as they should have done; but that this might occur under any system and has occurred before. He considers that one would be justified in saying that in recent years casualties have lessened.

COWBOY SONGS OF THE MEXICAN BORDER

FOR the past five or six years Prof. John A. Lomax, Sheldon Fellow of Harvard University for the Investigation of American Ballads, has been trying to collect the words of the most typical Western cowboy songs, especially those of the States and Territories bordering on Mexico; and the result of his labors is a volume of frontier ballads and cowboy songs, recently issued from the press. In the *Sewanee Review*, Professor Lomax traces the origin of many of these songs and recounts some of his experiences as a collector. Of the sources of some of the songs he writes:

Many of them were given to me by students of west Texas who have been in my classes; some I have obtained from the files of a Texas newspaper of large circulation, which for a number of years has printed a column of old familiar songs; some have come from manuscript scrapbooks; some have been taken down from the lips of ex-cowboys, now in many cases staid and respected citizens. A number of the most interesting songs were obtained from four negroes who have had experience in ranch life. One of these negroes is now a Pullman-car porter, one is a farmer in the Texas Panhandle, one runs a saloon in San Antonio, and a fourth keeps an undertaker's shop. I had the rather unusual experience of sitting in a

dark room surrounded by coffins, while my negro undertaker friend sang into my phonograph an Australian Bush song, widely popular among the cowboys, known as "Jack Donahoo."

As to the authorship of the songs, Professor Lomax asserts that he has made no progress at all, except "to discover four individuals all of whom claim the authorship of the same song." Probably most of them were written during the last fifty or sixty years, and amid social conditions of noteworthy significance. The latter are thus described:

The large cattle ranches of early days were often one hundred miles and farther from places where the conventions of society were observed. On extremely few of these ranches was there a woman in the household. The ranch community consisted of the boss, the cowboys proper, the horse wranglers, and the cook. These men lived on terms of perfect equality. Except in the case of the boss, there was little difference in the amount paid for their services. Society here was reduced to its lowest terms. The work of the men, their daily experiences, their thoughts, their interests, were all in common. Such a community had necessarily to feed on itself for entertainment. There were no books or magazines; and visitors came at rare intervals. It was perfectly natural, then, for the

men to seek diversion in song. Whatever the most gifted man could produce had to bear the criticism of the entire camp, and in a sense had to agree with the ideas of a group of men; else their ridicule would soon force it to be modified. Any song, therefore, that came from such a group would probably be the joint product of a number of them. . . . The choruses of such community songs seem specially invented to urge on the cattle when they grew tired on the long drives. The cowboy's shrill cries, his whooping and yelling in thousands of variations, as well as the pop of the whip that he once carried, were employed to encourage the cattle to move faster. These cries were, in occasional instances at least, merged into measured verses, fitted to tunes, and finally attached permanently to some cowboy narrative in verse.

The titles of the songs give a tolerably clear idea of their contents. Among them are: "The Dying Cowboy," "A Midnight Stampede," "The Crooked Trail to Holbrook," "The Dying Ranger," "When Bob Got Throwned," "The Cowboy's Hopeless Love," "The Trials of a Mormon Settler," "The Dying Californian." They tell of the cowboy's mother, sweetheart, and home; recount the exploits of outlaws such as Sam Bass, Jesse James, and Cole Younger; they treat of the cowboy's hardships, his encounters with the law, and his thoughts of death. When the famous Texas ranger Mustang Gray died, a song was made about him, the chorus of which runs:

No more he'll go a-ranging the savage to affright;
He has heard his last warwhoop and fought his
last fight.

Another ranger utters this warning:

Perhaps you have a mother, likewise a sister, too,
And maybe so a sweetheart to grieve and mourn
for you.
If this be your condition, although you'd like to
room,
I'd advise you by experience, you had better stay
at home.

Sometimes it has been his sweetheart who has sent the cowboy roving:

These locks she has curled, shall the
rattlesnake kiss?
This brow she has kissed, shall the
cold grave press?

Occasionally he speaks of her in jocular familiarity:

There was a little gal,
And she lived with her mother;
All the devils out of hell
Couldn't scare up such another.

One condition out of which grew the songs was the loneliness of the men while night-

herding after bedding the cattle down for the night, and after most of their comrades were asleep. Cowboys say that the voice had a quieting effect on the cattle.

Many of the songs deal with the cowboy's daily life; as, for example:

O, the cowpuncher loves the whistle of his rope,
As he races over the plains:
And the stagedriver loves the popper of his whip
And the jingle of his concord chains.
And we'll all pray the Lord that we will be saved,
And we'll keep the golden rule;
But I'd rather be at home with the girl I love
Than to monkey with this dad-blamed mule.

Another cowboy thus boasts of his skill:

I'm a rowdy cowboy, just off the stormy plains;
My trade is cinching saddles and pulling bridle
reins.
Oh, I can tip the lasso; it is with graceful ease
I rope a streak of lightning and ride it where I
please.

The sad ending of many a rough rider is depicted in the following:

It was once in the saddle
I used to go dashing;
It was once in the saddle
I used to go gay.
First to the dram house,
Then to the card house—
Got shot in the breast,
I'm dying to-day.

The cowboy is not usually regarded as a deeply religious person. He himself says: "On the plains we scarcely know a Sunday from a Monday." He, however, sings of God in the familiar terms of the range:

They say He'll never forget you,
That He knows every action and look,
So for safety you had better keep branded—
Have your name on His big Tally Book.

That he sometimes thinks of the future life is indicated in the following lines:

Perhaps I will be a stray cowboy,
A maverick, unbranded on high,
And get cut in the bunch with the "rusties,"
When the Boss of the Riders goes by.

Last night as I lay on the prairie,
And looked up at the stars in the sky,
I wondered if ever a cowboy
Would drift to that Sweet Bye and Bye.

Professor Lomax says that he considers the present result of his work to be but a meager part of the existing material. It is to be hoped that he will be able to continue his researches.

HYGIENE AND THE PROGRESS OF CIVILIZATION

DR. KOLLE, professor of hygiene and bacteriology at the University of Berne, contributes to the Berlin *Woche* an article in which he traces the development of hygiene from remote times to the present, which he characterizes as the "scientific-experimental" stage. He remarks that there is no other field of investigation which gives us as true a measure of the culture of a people.

We find, he reminds us, that even the primeval nations of antiquity and the present primitive African and Asiatic tribes endeavor to ward off disease, particularly (in a field which is so important a feature in modern hygiene) contagious diseases and epidemics.

The attention to hygiene is more noticeable in the civilized nations of antiquity than in the primitive ones, and the greater the strides of culture the more definite are the regulations regarding health. With the ancient Egyptians and Israelites, sanitation and medical science were under the protection of the state and the ruling castes, the priests, and were, therefore, regulated by religious laws. Thus the Mosaic laws are, in fact, in great part hygienic ones. In the case of the Greeks of the classic age, hygiene was developed in much the same way. The great lawgivers, Lycurgus and Solon, took care that hygiene should have its full share in the public requirements of life. Regulations concerning cleanliness, hardening of the body, etc., played a great rôle. Public sanitation was likewise enriched by the supervision of the public pumps. No less a person than Themistocles was invested with such an office; for all epidemics were then traced to the water supply. The statesmen of all-conquering Rome early recognized the significance of hygiene. As culture rapidly advanced in a few centuries to the heights exhibited at the close of the Republic and the beginning of the Empire, measures for the public welfare and the care of the body attained their fullest bloom. The magnificent public baths, whose vast extent excites our wonder even to-day, were hygienic arrangements for rich and poor. As evidence of public sanitation, we still admire the grand aqueducts whose ruins so picturesquely traverse the broad sweep of the Campagna.

The distinguishing features of the first developments of sanitation are these: the regulations proceeded either from the priests, as religious laws, or were occasioned by the great massing of people and the consequent epidemics which were combated by statesmen with a view, in great part, to maintaining martial efficiency. In Athens, as well as in Rome and Alexandria, the state issued sanitary regulations based purely upon empiricism or lay experience, though at times proving efficacious.

Since, therefore, hygiene was as yet no science, all its achievements were lost with the fall of the Roman Empire and its culture. Not only were the sanitary arrangements destroyed, but hygienic regulations and culture and personal care of the body disappeared in the Dark Ages with the state religions and the sects which had given them birth. Dogma, faith in authority, and unboundedly fanciful beliefs in natural phenomena held undisputed sway up to the close of the sixteenth century. It was only through the reform in anatomy and physiology that progress was initiated in hygienics. It was recognized more and more that great epidemics resulted from natural causes and were not chastisements of an incensed Deity, and from the efforts to check them the scientific bases of public sanitation were developed.

Then followed the last stage of hygienic evolution—one that may be designated as the era of scientific-experimental hygiene, with which bacteriology is indissolubly united.

If we wish to characterize properly this period of fifty years or thereabouts, it would be fitting to do so as one in which hygiene as a part of medical science concerns itself with the usual environment of man and makes a scientific study of all its factors that may have a disturbing effect upon his organism or lower his efficiency. Thanks to Pettenkofer's initiative, hygienic institutions were founded, where—bacteria and protozoa being, externally, the greatest inciters of infectious diseases—bacteriology is made an important branch of study.

In spite of the fact that hygiene is generally recognized as a science and a cultural factor, particularly in view of its practical successes, objections continue to arise against it as regards its usefulness in the interest of mankind. They have reference to the considerations raised by Malthus and Spencer.

As far as the doctrine of the former is concerned—the fear that effective sanitation will multiply the population of a country to such an extent that there will not be sufficient nutriment and that epidemics will follow in consequence, causing a high death-rate—it can no longer be considered applicable to Europe, or to America and Africa for that matter. The advances in technology, the improvement in agriculture and means of communication, have nullified those objections. Spencer's theory is essentially as follows: Hygiene limits the natural processes of selection, such as infant and youthful mortality, or checks them completely. In a country, therefore, where hygiene is steadily pursued, there will be an increasingly feeble population, which will be unable to resist natural ills such as epidemics, or to bear up in the struggle for existence. The history of the civilized nations of Europe in the last centuries has, however, to a certain extent, belied Spencer's doctrine. Under the influence of hygiene more vigorous generations have, as a rule, arisen than

before the spread of that science. And precisely in considering the value, for instance, of combating infant mortality, we should never forget how many notable personalities who were weaklings as children owe their lives only to the most careful nurture. We may mention, naming only a few, Goethe, Kant, Helmholtz.

But the voices raised in favor of "natural selection" by aid of infectious diseases, and the complaints concerning the encroachment upon such selective forces by hygienics, will not cease. The serious reproach is brought against that science that by its agency many inferior lives are perpetu-

ated. That the struggle for existence is a principle designed by Nature, and one requisite for the good of the species, can hardly be denied. We encounter it everywhere in Nature—in lower animal and in plant life, even where we feel as if there reigned the profoundest peace. But this breach of Nature's law of the "survival of the fittest" is only an apparent one. Hygiene does not exclude the struggle for existence; it only robs it of its brutal, arbitrarily physical features, and turns it, with a view to the spiritual advance of mankind, into paths leading to the welfare of the community and the family.

HAS TURKEY A FOREIGN POLICY?

THAT the foreign policies of most of the European powers are now actually shaped according to their respective interests in the Near East, has come to be recognized by all statesmen, journalists and students of politics. The danger spot of the world's peace lies in the Balkans and Western Asia. Questions of international importance, affecting directly tens of millions of people, are now agitating all the countries lying between the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, Black and Caspian seas, the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea. These countries, inhabited mostly by Moslems, whose recent awakening has alarmed the whole world, were for years the victims of either local tyrants or of their European masters. The Ottoman Empire, with its vast dominions in Europe, Asia and Africa, being the most powerful of these Moslem states and directly influencing their religious sentiments, through the Sultan, the Khalif, always has been and still is the natural stage of the diplomatic developments upon which the Powers are trying to gain influence and supremacy in those countries.

Especially has Constantinople become important, since the late revolution. At the same time, the influence of the Young Turk government over the Moslems of all countries has become more important and its prestige has been increased by the far-reaching reforms which have been begun in the army and navy. It is becoming apparent that Turkey has changed the situation herself, and from being a passive toy in the hands of Europe, has gradually become an active factor, to be figured with on the chessboard of world politics. She now has a well-defined foreign policy of her own. This policy has been of late the subject of much discussion in the European press, and has even been freely debated in the Ottoman Parliament, by ministers and deputies alike.

Of the two political groups or alliances now

dividing Europe,—the Triple Entente and the Triple Alliance,—the powers composing the first (England,—France and Russia) have their largest colonies inhabited by Moslems, who are becoming restless. This condition is due in part to local political discontent, but also to an awakened national feeling and to the example of the Turkish revolution. These powers, moreover, are endeavoring to widen their spheres of influence in some of the Moslem countries, heretofore independent but now politically agitated, with the ultimate aim of making them protectorates. On the other hand, the members of the Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria and Italy), have no Moslem colonies and proclaim themselves as ambitious only to receive commercial or industrial opportunities in Turkey and the other Moslem countries. One of these powers, Germany, has helped to reorganize the Turkish army, has guaranteed to float a loan of approximately \$49,000,000 for the Turkish Government, and has expressed herself as ready to adjust in a friendly and satisfactory manner all outstanding differences. Many Turks, therefore, are openly advocating an adherence to the Triple Alliance, so as to unite all Moslem interests with the Germanic,—this as a sort of counterweight to the traditional enemy, the Slav. The journals of Turkey freely discuss this situation.

TOWARD WHICH EUROPEAN ALLIANCE?

The *Jeune Turc* (Constantinople), in a very elaborate historical analysis of the question, says in part:

To begin with our neighbors,—except Roumania, with whom we have no disputes and no frontiers,—none of the Balkan States are even as much as diplomatic friends. They all have as an object the ruin of the Ottoman Empire, whose natural heirs they consider themselves to be . . . therefore no possibility of a "Balkan Federation" to defend common interests, as there are none.

... Among the Triple Entente, there is Russia, our traditional enemy, who must aim at our destruction, in order to preserve herself. She cannot be our ally. Is it not to defend ourselves eventually against her that we are looking for an alliance? Can the wolf and the lamb agree? Does not the Muscovite power wish to wipe us out of the map, as she has done with Poland? History is here to show how the Empire of the Czars has become larger at our cost. Is not the same empire applying with the complicity of Great Britain the same methods used to appropriate Poland, Finland, Bokhara, Caucasia, etc., to the division of Persia? As to Great Britain, that country is for us simply a more civilized Russia. . . . Is it not for Egypt, Cyprus and the hinterland of Aden, that we desire to be strong? England will never desire that we should be able to defend ourselves. As to France, we need her money but not her usurers. We need her science, her language, her liberty, equality, but not her principles as applied in her colonies. Can we forget Tunisia, the foolish acts of Waldeck-Rousseau in Metelin, and the treatment of our military instructors in Fez, although we appreciate her intervention in our behalf in Crete? While it would be advisable to have an entente with France, an alliance is out of question. . . . Who are, then, those who have common interests with us? The Triple Alliance. Some would say that Germany has also done us much wrong during Abdul-Hamid's reign, which is true; but the alliance could help to adjust easily all our present troubles with her, including the Bagdad Railway agreement. Of course we have not forgotten Bosnia-Herzegovina, but which is the best combination for us: an alliance with larger usurpers or smaller ones? And has not Austria-Hungary shown her good will by evacuating the Sandjak of Novi Bazar?

The *Yeni-Gazetta* (New Journal), also of Constantinople, attacks the Russian policy toward Turkey and answers the attacks of the Muscovite press, as follows:

Russia continues her policy of intrigue in the Balkans, to hurt our reforms and reorganizations; she is trying to put new obstacles in our way. Has she forgotten the Far-Eastern calamity, from which she cannot recover in the next fifteen years? . . . If Russia would renounce her low aspirations and become more human and liberal, she would be our best friend; if she would have as her aim only humanity and progress, we would gladly forget all our differences, and could easily make a warehouse of wealth out of Anatolia and Southern Russia. But unfortunately politics in Russia are quite different.

AN OLD TURK AND THE YOUNG TURKS

But are the Young Turks, with all their shrewdness, actually carrying public opinion in Turkey with them? The testimony is not unanimous. One old Turk,—no less a personage than the remarkable Kiamil Pasha, formerly Grand Vizier,—doubts it, and expresses his dissent from the general opinion in a vigorous interview recently reported in *Hellenisme*, the organ of the Pan-Greek party,

which is published in Paris. The fact that Kiamil Pasha has adhered to the constitution, and has even accepted the post of one of the first Grand Viziers under the new Sultan, Mohammed V, lends even greater weight to his utterances. He has studied the Young Turks and their system at close range, and he knows all the men who are directing the destinies of the Empire at the present hour. Disgusted with what he saw going on around him, he resolved to leave Constantinople. On his way to Smyrna, some months ago, he was interviewed by a representative of a Constantinople journal. The aged statesman is far from sharing the aspirations of the present Turkish Government or of approving its methods. "The Young Turks," he said, "are a mere 'continuation' of Abdul Hamid." And he adds, "To speak frankly I see nothing beautiful in this chauvinistic policy. We are nearing an abyss. Our present politicians are doing things that are perfectly childish, and it is hard to foresee the consequences to this poor empire."

Concerning the Turco-Roumanian military convention, Kiamil Pasha said that, in spite of all the noise that was made about it and the number of times it was denied, it is of no strategic value to Turkey. He also declared himself against Turkey entering the Triple Alliance,—“for the integrity of Turkey is guaranteed by the Treaty of Berlin, and should we now fall into the arms of the three powers, the others, feeling that they were thereby released from their agreement, would jump upon us and bring about most undesirable complications. This is why I was just saying that our present policy is leading us to the edge of a precipice.”

When questioned about the attitude of the Young Turks toward Greece, Kiamil Pasha says:

My opinion is that we should maintain the most friendly relations with Greece. We have many interests in common. There are so many Greek elements in Turkey. A hostile policy toward Greece can only bring about most disastrous results, while from fraternizing might spring happy and advantageous consequences for both peoples. A war with Greece is, in the present state of affairs, not practicable. It would not be of any advantage to us. I think that our statesmen should endeavor to avoid a war, and, above all, they should make every effort to put an end to the commercial war, called "boycott," which has become a veritable plague to Turkey. I am convinced it is not tolerated by the Government but is maintained by a few influential members of the Union and Progress Committee. These gentlemen will not understand that this commercial war is waged against the Ottomans, and that the Ottomans suffer from it far more than the Greeks.

THE DETECTION OF FIRE DAMP IN COAL MINES

IT has always been difficult to make the individual miner realize that *he* can be careless enough to do others harm. Safety appliances are common, which, if used as they should be, would do away with much of the danger which constantly threatens workers in bituminous coal mines; but the history of colliery explosions presents many a case where the thoughtlessness of one man has set at naught all the care of a hundred of his fellows. Failure to notice clear warnings of danger is usually the cause of shocking disasters.

A recent paper in *Cosmos* discusses certain new devices which, acting automatically, are intended to compel attention to warnings of the presence of fire damp. The safety of the miners would be greatly increased if each worker could, without stopping his work, keep himself informed of the condition of the atmosphere; but the average miner, too accustomed to the danger in the midst of which he lives, is indifferent, inattentive and, often, imprudent. Consequently, a warning system, to be worth while, must work automatically in such a way as to compel his attention, and, further, report the dangerous condition of things to others who may be some distance away. The two devices described by Dr. Icard of Marseilles have these ends in view. When the atmosphere contains less than 6 per cent. of fire damp by volume, the mixture will burn if ignited, but the heat generated is not sufficient to cause a general explosion. A lamp burning in such an atmosphere will cause only those portions of the gas mixture in immediate contact with the flame to ignite. This burning gas assumes a conical shape which we may call the "combustion cone." The size of this cone is proportional to the amount of fire damp present. Unfortunately, the bluish haze which envelops the combustion cone makes it difficult to define, and its size cannot be determined with any accuracy except with the aid of special lamps.

Dr. Icard believes that the combustion cone is always hot enough to heat to incandescence suitable substances introduced into it. His device consists in introducing into the cone of burning fire damp, just beyond the limits of the lamp flame, a fiber or wire or plate of some non-combustible material capable of readily becoming incandescent. That portion of this material which is in contact with the hot gases of the combustion cone will become incandescent and glow brilliantly, while the part that is outside the cone will

remain comparatively cool and therefore dull. The limits of the combustion cone, and therefore the proportion of the fire damp to the total atmospheric gases, are clearly indicated. Asbestos, in the form of very fine fiber, mica, in the form of very thin plates, and platinum are the three substances which seem to promise the best results. The glowing power of the substance used can be increased by the use of alkaline-earth oxides and other substances employed in the Welsbach type of lamps.

But the temperature of the combustion cone at any one point does not remain constant: this also varies with the amount of fire damp present. On this as a basis, a "fire-damp scale" can be constructed, giving successive temperatures and the several percentages of fire damp corresponding to them for the same spot in the combustion cone. The device by which Dr. Icard proposes to make this property useful consists in introducing into the atmosphere of the lamp, at a definite point in the combustion cone, some substance (metal or alloy) whose melting-point corresponds exactly with the temperature which the combustion cone exhibits at this point for a given percentage of fire damp. The metal in the melting may be arranged to break a connection, establish a contact, etc., and thus give a signal which must inevitably attract the attention of the miners.

Although the employment of these two devices (that for incandescence and that for fusion) may be capable of providing a lamp which will measure the fire damp, the aim of the inventor is after all to construct simple lamps merely to show the presence of fire damp. The fusion device, in particular, is applicable to all the safety devices of the mine; it may be so operated as not materially to take away from the simplicity or durability of the miner's lamp.

Suggestions in this field are welcome: recent colliery explosions have called for a more careful study of their causes and of the means to be used to avoid them. Strict precautions are taken before each descent into the galleries, and the English law compels those in charge to satisfy themselves of the absence of methane from the workings, before allowing the miners to enter the galleries. To this end the cuttings are carefully inspected at each shift of the men by a special force who examine the flames of the lamps. If the flame becomes longer and more brilliant at the

tip, the presence of the terribly explosive gas is indicated. Still, if these indications develop slowly, it may be hard to detect them; it is therefore necessary to make the evidence so marked that all chance of mistaking it would be removed. This is what Cunyngnam and Cadman have tried to do, in proposing, as an easy means of noting the size of the combustion cone, to color it by the introduction of sodium in some form. Just as dust particles containing lime or soda salts produce a marked coloration of a laboratory burner flame, sharply outlining it; so, by means of an ingenious contrivance operated without opening the miner's lamp, a piece of uralite impregnated with sodium bicarbonate may be inserted in the combustion cone and its luminosity immensely increased. In such a case the lamp's light-giving power may be easily increased without moving the wick,—something which has frequently led to the extinguishment of the light, with all that that might mean.

Study has been directed of late to the question whether there is any connection between the amount of fire damp in the colliery workings and the pressure of the atmosphere at the time. Opinions upon this subject have been divided: some claiming that a low barometer was accompanied by a marked rise in the percentage of methane in the headings; others refusing to believe that so marked

a result could be produced by comparatively slight changes in atmospheric pressure.

After quoting the opinions of a number of engineers upon this question, L. Morin has given an account of the work carried on last year at Liévin, which led to the following conclusions:

(1) Every variation in atmospheric pressure is accompanied by a corresponding variation in the proportion of methane, which increases when the pressure falls and decreases when the pressure rises.

(2) The variations in the amounts of methane may be very marked, and a fall of 30 millimeters (1.2 inch) in the mercury column may produce a difference of 50 per cent. in the ratio of methane to air in the galleries of the mine.

(3) The comparisons of the atmospheric pressures, on the one hand, and the percentages of methane present, on the other, were made at times when the results could be regarded as free from any disturbing factors.

The author also describes efforts made to determine the source of the fire damp set free. It seemed to be contained in the spaces between the walls of old workings, as well as in the earth enclosing the veins of coal. He concludes with a discussion of precautions likely to ward off danger from the escape of fire damp, such as a vigorous ventilation at times of low atmospheric pressure, etc.

A LIGHTHOUSE WITHOUT A KEEPER

IT frequently happens that in the neighborhood of important seaports there exist dangerous rocks on which or near which it is difficult to build and maintain the usual type of lighthouse, and which yet call for a more effective provision than is supplied by buoys. A recent article in *Cosmos* describes a lighthouse of considerable power erected at no great cost and maintained without a keeper.

The entrance to the harbor of St. Peter Port, on the island of Guernsey, is very dangerous by reason of the numerous rocks which up to the present have had no mark. To do away with some of the danger attending the passage of the Little Russell Channel, a lighthouse provided with a fog-horn has been built upon a small isolated rock called Platte Fougère. There was not room enough to put up a lighthouse with accommodations for keepers; instead, a small concrete tower was erected, about 16 by 13 feet in section, and about 65 feet high, carrying a lantern and the

fog-horn. The lamp is fed with acetylene from gas-cylinders below. The flame is lit and maintained automatically by means of apparatus controlled by clockwork. The siren has a horn four feet in diameter and is worked by compressed air, for which there are three reservoirs in the tower, as well as two pumps or air-compressors which work independently to maintain the pressure in the reservoirs. These compressors are operated by electric motors which receive their current (three-phase alternating) by submarine cable from a station built upon the mainland of Guernsey. The siren, when in operation, is audible for a long distance, sounding at intervals of one and one-half minutes.

The submarine cable, a mile and a quarter long, contains the three principal conductors which carry the current (600 volts, 25 alternations per second), and in addition two secondary wires, by means of which it is possible, from the mainland of Guernsey, to set in

motion either of the motor compressors for the siren, and to receive signals from the lighthouse.

The plant has cost \$42,000. A lighthouse arranged for keepers, on the same site, would have cost \$300,000.

SOME IRISH ELECTIONEERING EXPERIENCES

ORIGINALITY is a distinguishing feature of the Irish character, manifesting itself in every condition of society and in every walk of life; and it is not surprising to find it especially prominent in so fertile a field as electioneering. According to Mr. Stephen Gwynn, M. P., in the *Cornhill* (London), much more fun for one's money is to be had at Irish elections than at those of England. He writes:

There is very little of the printers' bill; few candidates issue even an election address, still fewer trouble the electors with argumentative "literature." You rely for persuasion upon native eloquence, supplemented by processions, torches, tar-barrels, and, above all, by music. To run an Irish election without a band is indeed an uphill and depressing business.

Mr. Gwynn found this to be the case at his first plunge into politics; and he gives the following graphic account of the election in question:

It began with an instantaneous extinguishing of all the town's electric light at the moment when I alighted on the platform, coming as a stranger selected that day at a convention, and confidently anticipating an unopposed return. No experienced speaker would be upset by a trifle of this kind, but I was not experienced; my first address, delivered in total darkness, suffered; and when I found that my room in the hotel was numbered thirteen I grew more uneasy, if possible. But the key of our opponents' strategy was the control of the bands. One band they possessed and utilized to the full, drawing crowds after it irresistibly. Another they paralyzed. It was always on the point of coming out, but one day instruments were out of gear; another day, when musicians and all were established in a wagonette, something happened to the lynch-pin. We fell back on importation from a neighboring town, but in a rash moment this band was left standing unsupported in a street some distance from our crowd. A swoop was made by a strong party of the enemy, and in two minutes all instruments were captured and borne off. So began the fiercest street riot that I have ever witnessed: so fierce that providentially it enabled us to dispense for the remainder of the contest with the moral effect of music.

Irish elections divide themselves into two classes—the regular and the irregular. In elections of the irregular type feeling runs high; and yet there is no venom in it. Three or four years ago Mr. Gwynn at a certain contest received a slight blow from a stick. Later in the afternoon, he relates, as he stood talking to some people, a dog-cart passed him

and a big young farmer in it took off his hat rather sheepishly. On asking who it was, Mr. Gwynn was told, "That's the man who hit you."

Mr. Gwynn cites the following as the drollest and most humiliating of all his electioneering experiences:

It was in the snowy end of last January, and I had traveled from early morning till eleven at night. As the train drew up on the platform, I, looking out for my friends, perceived a small crowd, some twenty or thirty, who, it was easy to know, were not there for my welcome. Presently one came up to me and asked if I was going to work for Mr. —, naming our candidate. I told him my name, which, indeed, was so visible on my bag that I did not think of trying concealment. There was a consultation. Then the crowd gathered about me, and the two leaders explained to me that for me personally they had the deepest respect; that they were sure I had been misled as to the local situation, but that "the streets of B— would run with blood if I came into them," and that there was another train just starting for Dublin, by which I must return. They added, meaningly, "If it was some others that was in it they wouldn't be so lucky as to get the chance." The allusion was, I regret to say, to the leader of my party. . . . Meanwhile there was I wishing very much that it was "others that was in it," since proper arrangements would have been made to meet them; and very angry with my friends who had left me to decide whether I really must, for the sake of honor and glory, risk getting kicked to bits by a mob. So we stood and parleyed, I asserting my unalterable determination to sleep in B—, they repeating (with gusto) the phrase about blood running in the streets. At last one of the big men said suddenly, "Begorra, we'll carry you." I did my best to look furious, but inwardly was much relieved as they lifted me like a bale of goods, carried me round to the other side of the station, and flung me into a carriage. It surprised me to notice that one of the two chief men (whose name I had learned—he was a local district councilor and justice of the peace) was watching over me as if I were a baby, and distributing chastisement to any of the younger lads who tried to get a stroke or a kick at me. When I was fairly shut in, and my bags flung after me, just before the train moved off, he stood on the carriage step and wanted to shake hands.

One thing Mr. Gwynn is able to say for Irish electioneering, and that is, the element of idealism is dominant in Irish politics. The best proof of this, he says, is that the richest man cannot hope by the most judicious liberality to alter the complexion of any constituency, be it Unionist or Nationalist. So much, he thinks, cannot be said for the English electorate.

IS THE DEATH OF MARXISM AT HAND?

RADICAL changes are impending in the programs, ideals and organizations of the socialist movement throughout the world, if we are to accept the judgment of Dr. Paul Weisengrün, the Austrian student of political movements. In a long, scholarly analysis of the progress of political socialism which he contributes to a recent number of the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna), Dr. Weisengrün maintains that "all the really enlightened minds of Europe now recognize the fact that theoretical Marxism is nearing its end."

The pious souls whose wishes take the form of social ideals for the future may still, of course, be counted by the hundred thousands. And in such circles the phrases "exploiters," "increment of value," "inherent law of capitalistic development," are still regarded as sacred formulas. But even in this army of believers the old dogmas are losing their magic, the doubters are multiplying daily. The issue now turns upon overcoming "revisionism" itself, upon showing that it is impossible to permanently reconcile social idealism with social realism; that no path, however difficult of discovery, leads from Kant to Marx, from a freer, more real psychological conception of things to a mechanical socialism.

This judgment, Dr. Weisengrün admits, applies only to theoretical Marxism. He goes on to say:

The collapse of "practical Marxism" is a most recent event, and we are witnessing only the first act of this stupendous drama. Those who think only of a "revolutionary wing" and an "evolutionary direction" do not realize the true relation of things. The actual facts are these: as long as, following Marx, it could be believed that capitalism was digging its own grave, so long did the working classes need to follow only a simple, straight policy. Continual agitation, enlightening the masses—that was all. If, however, it can no longer be held that the present social order is being destroyed by industrial development, the doom of that simple policy is sealed. The question assumes quite a different aspect. The term "a coherent reactionary mass," applied to the bourgeoisie, begins to lose its force. The new movement favors the coalition of all liberal elements in order to remove the remnants of economic feudalism. That this movement is so general and vigorous is the first obvious sign of the decline of practical Marxism.

"Practical Marxism is based on a correspondence—presumably inevitable—between the increase of industrialism and the growth of social democracy." It is a strange fact

that neither Great Britain, which was the founder of modern industrialism, nor America, the real perfecter of it, can point to a real Social Democratic party. The Austrian writer believes that, despite the strength of British trade unionism, political socialism in England is still in its infancy, and the same statement, he maintains, holds good of the United States.

The comparative weakness of the labor movement in that country of pronounced capitalism is undeniable. Nay, even the anti-trust agitation, which has dominated politics there in recent years, has not had the effect of essentially strengthening American socialism. The extension of industrialism, the power of technical concentration, the increase of great concerns—the growth of Social Democracy assuredly, then, does not depend upon these factors alone. Its progress must turn on other circumstances.

Turning now to the consideration of the so-called Social Democracy on the continent, Dr. Weisengrün observes that "in Austria, as well as in Germany, socialism thrives on the mistakes of its opponents." He says:

How is this ineptitude of the bourgeoisie, which may be regarded as the tower of strength of practical Marxism, to be accounted for? If the materialist interpretation of history were correct, if political movements represented directly and simply the results of economic forces, we should not have such strong remnants of political and economic feudalism in Europe, nor such differentiation in European capitalism. But the materialist interpretation of history is fundamentally erroneous. The striving for economic power is not the sole ruler of the world—sexual relations, emotional considerations, to some extent abstract thinking, and other factors, influence the devious road of economic development. The social straight road exists only in the imagination of one-sided, even if able, economists.

It is the tragedy of Marxism, continues this writer, that "it cannot adapt itself at all to a healthy capitalism . . . and that it forgets the fact that there is in process a veritable rejuvenation of capitalism in general."

Thus we have a rivalry between the lack of insight of the bourgeoisie and the political impotence of practical Marxism. In England there is no such struggle, owing to the discernment of the bourgeoisie. Prussia is a striking evidence of how the Government, too, by its reactionary policy has played into the hands of the socialists.

INVESTORS' PROTECTION

WITH OTHER NEWS OF BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

The Passing of Corporation "Overlordship"

ANOTHER great banker made it clear last month that he regards the expression of the popular will that there be more democracy in the management of corporations as something worth while recognizing.

It is fortunate to find such men as Otto H. Kahn taking a public-spirited attitude on this question. Mr. Kahn is a member of the firm of Kuhn, Loeb & Company and was one of the closest associates of the late E. H. Harriman. In the course of an address on the life of that remarkable financier and railroad genius Mr. Kahn said:

His [Harriman's] death coincided with what appears to be the end of an epoch in our economic development. His career was the embodiment of unfettered individualism. For better or for worse—personally I believe for better, unless we go too far and too fast—the people appear determined to put limits and restraints upon the exercise of economic power and overlordship, just as in former days they put limits and restraints upon the absolutism of rulers.

A writer in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for October, 1909, shortly after Mr. Harriman's death, said:

With him an epoch closed—the one-man rule of great railroads. A group of the world's ablest are keeping up the work—better, so the critics say. But not one of them could do it as he did, alone and absolute.

These two ideas are similar. But in the light of present tendencies, Mr. Kahn's thought has new significance. It throws additional light upon the changed attitude which the "big interests" are taking toward the public.

We spoke last month of the defensive positions which appear to have been taken by these "interests" on the question of Government regulation. Mr. Harriman's friend and confidant was asked if he did not have in mind as one of the events of the new epoch to which he referred, the present efforts of the Hadley Commission to formulate some plan whereby the Government might insist that investors be taken more into the confidence of the railroads having securities for sale. Mr. Kahn did not reply directly. Great bankers do not talk offhand on big

questions, especially those which concern their own business. They fear being misunderstood. However, Mr. Kahn let it be inferred that he favored a better understanding between the corporations and the public.

Practising What They Preach

MR. OTTO H. KAHN is one of the directors of the vast system of railroads which bears the name "Harriman." It was a mere coincidence, perhaps, that only a few days after he had given so intimate a view of the personality of the man who made that system great, official announcement should have been forthcoming of a plan comprehending the expenditure of millions for the improvement and development of those properties. It was a coincidence, too, that in the same week a Western banker should have declared, in testifying before the Hadley Commission, that "capital is as patriotic as the men who control it." But these three incidents formed a chain of significant financial news.

The determination of the officers and directors of the "Harriman Pacific" to undertake such work at this time was everywhere hailed as rather upsetting the "orthodox" view of railroad men, that unless they were allowed to raise rates, and unless regulatory legislation were to cease, progress would halt.

President Lovett and his associates are patriotic. They propose a "square deal" with capital and with the people of the West, whom they aim to serve. They say, in effect, that the spirit of fair and open dealing should prevail as between the corporations and the public just as it prevails in business between man and man. They are confident of success.

Such is the attitude of the men who are carrying on the work which Harriman began—differently, it is true, but with no less a belief in the possibilities of the West than that which furnished their former general with a motive for his achievements.

A Cheerful English Critic

IT is encouraging to find a cheerful view of the general railroad situation being taken by an authority who has been trained in an entirely different school of criticism.

W. M. Acworth, the highest authority on railroads in Great Britain, says that "in actual economy of operation the railways of the United States are first in the world." The chief fault which he finds is one for which many of our own prominent railroad men have already realized they must seek a remedy. On his recent departure for home, after several weeks of study of conditions in this country, Mr. Acworth said, with reference to America's railroad administration:

I think the centralization of administrative power in your headquarters offices in Chicago and New York, while tending doubtless to efficiency and economy, is responsible in some degree for the present strained relations between the railways and the public. As a wise railway friend of mine says, "the counter between the salesman and the customer is too wide."

Relationship of a more personal character between the railroad executives and the public, Mr. Acworth believes, would work wonders. He would have officers clothed with large discretionary powers living among the people of the West and South, studying local problems and getting first-hand knowledge of how to bring the services of their roads up to the point of maximum efficiency.

"Time was," said Mr. Acworth, "when your railways had a good many skeletons in their cupboards and then they naturally kept them shut. Nowadays the skeletons are all buried and I think the railways would do well to open their cupboards and let the public see how sweet and clean they are."

The "Aldrich Plan"

MOST business men know, from actual experience, though probably few would be able to offer a technical explanation of it, what a source of aggravation the country's present "inelastic" Government bond secured note issues can be, when money is "tight." The supplanting, or, at least, the supplementing of, these old note issues with notes based upon the credit instruments of the country's commercial business is a significant feature of a proposal which constituted one of the most important incidents in last month's news.

An "Americanized Central Bank"—that is what some one has rather happily called the Reserve Association which is the fundamental part of the plan recently proposed by Senator Aldrich, Chairman of the National Monetary Commission, for the reform of the country's currency system.

In all of the technical provisions of the plan the average reader will scarcely be

interested. His concern is more about the results which are sought to be accomplished through it. Viewed broadly, it does not differ essentially from any of the other plans which have been so widely discussed during the last two or three years. Its principal aims are:

The coördination of the country's banking machinery; and the provision of a means of getting money when money is most needed.

Our bankers have for some time realized that the present banking system could not much longer be retained, if we were to keep up with all of the complex problems which naturally confront any great commercial nation, and if we were to compete in financial strength with the other countries of the world. But they have been divided in opinion—apparently hopelessly so at times—as to whether the time was ripe for a change.

It is interesting, therefore, and no less important, that at a meeting at Atlantic City, just before Lincoln's Birthday, representatives of many of the country's largest financial institutions passed resolutions approving of most of the details of the "Aldrich Plan."

Under some such plan as that which Senator Aldrich has submitted for discussion, more "money" could be created when the demand for it was greatest, and it would automatically retire itself as the demand diminished. That would tend to insure "peaceful finance"—something which every investor would welcome.

"Expectations" as the Basis of Value

A THOUSAND or more holders of irrigation bonds recently had their interest coupons, which they had sent in for collection, returned to them with the explanation, "No funds." Immediately, on all sides, there were heard expressions of dismay, of which the following are typical:

I am a woman with so small a property that I dare not lose. I don't know what to do to protect my interest—and have no money to do it with, anyhow.

I am utterly astounded. Does this mean that the bonds, which were so highly commended, are worthless? What shall I do about it?

The experience through which these investors are passing may well serve as an object lesson for those who have irrigation securities offered to them in the future. For that reason there is justification enough for a recurrence to an investment question which has been discussed in these columns on several occasions in the past.

The latest failures in this field of enterprise are of two companies organized under the "Carey Act," one to operate in Idaho, the other in Montana. Neither one of the projects was of the wildcat type; both were promoted by bankers who, by reason of past successes, had long been regarded as meriting the confidence of the public; both were considered promising.

What, then, does it mean that in no longer than a year after the bonds were widely distributed, the holders are left "high and dry"—cut off, for no one knows how long, from the income on what they believed to be sound investments, and wondering what is to become of their principal?

It means that the bankers who were primarily interested in financing the two enterprises overextended their operations. Their capital resources proved inadequate for the completion of the irrigation plants—the dams, reservoirs, canals and ditches, without which the "water rights" underlying the bonds become useless, and the lands securing the bonds are left barren, non-productive and of little value.

Against such a contingency—unforeseen, of course, in these particular instances—repeated warnings had been sounded. This magazine gave its share of them. It is especially unfortunate that they remained unheard, or at any rate unheeded, by those who cannot afford to take risks with their savings. The values behind the bonds of these two companies at the time of their issuance and sale were merely potential; they were conditioned entirely upon results which the promoters *expected* to obtain from their undertakings; there was little of the real about them.

There will be other issues of "construction bonds" like these. It is probably right there should be. The future of the industry of irrigation farming is assured, and it ought to command such capital as it needs for its fullest development. There is certain to result, however, a finer sense on the part of investors of discrimination between bonds which are speculative and those which, representing properties that are "going," have entered the ranks of investments. Of the latter there are not a few. There are proper places for both classes.

Banker's Responsibility on Trial

"PROTECTIVE" committees have been formed to represent the holders of the irrigation bonds that have been described. The tasks before these committees are to reorgan-

ize the companies referred to, and to convert potential values into real. They must put the water on the lands. When water is furnished to the settlers, life will be given to the contract liens, deposited as security for the bonds—the companies' only source of income, from which to meet their obligations, both principal and interest. To do this will take time and a good deal of money. Bondholders must necessarily be patient.

All of this is to admit frankly that the picture is not without its shadows. The source of the lights is in the hope which may not unreasonably be entertained that bankers and protective committees will leave nothing undone to justify the trust which these investors have placed in them.

Reputations are at stake. And so is investment confidence. Much attention has recently been given by the popular press to the question: "Where shall the responsibility for improvident financing be placed?" The cases in point afford excellent opportunities to demonstrate how much banking responsibility may mean to the small investor.

Wanted: Employment for Small Savings

WHAT to do with a little savings fund of a few hundred dollars, is a question which is being asked with increasing frequency by people all over the country.

Time was when the answer, "Put it in a savings bank," would have settled the question in nine cases out of ten. But nowadays many people are less inclined to act upon such advice. Not that they distrust the banks—they are merely engaged in what some one has called "an incipient revolt" against the three and four per cent. interest paid to depositors by the average savings institution.

Whenever a critic finds himself dealing with a prospective investor who feels that he has been "hit" by the much mooted cost of living, and who—as one recently wrote to this department—is "more inclined to take a chance for better yield than formerly," he is compelled to seek an alternative.

The pity is that the range of choice in investments suitable for such people is so narrow. He who undertakes the selection of something to meet the peculiar requirements of these cases, first turns instinctively to high-grade standard bonds. But this field is practically closed to him, and all because the "captains of industry," the managers of the great industries upon which most of the soundest securities are based, have failed to

recognize how important is the aggregate borrowing power controlled by those to whom American financiers are sometimes wont to refer, more or less contemptuously, as "the little people."

There is a growing interest in this question among investment bankers. Those who have already studied it have reached the conclusion that it is little more than mere habit which is responsible for the continuance of the practice of creating securities in such form as to make them available only for the person whose savings accumulations are large. A banker whose business is in the Middle West recently said to the writer:

We have decided that, in future purchases of new bond issues, we shall insist upon *a certain proportion of each being made in small denominations*. If more distributors would take this attitude, we should soon be getting our supply of "small" bonds from the big syndicates themselves.

Reforming the "Curb"

NEW YORK'S "outside" market is about to undergo another reform. Its picturesque crowd of brokers, who make it their business to trade in miscellaneous "securities," now propose to adopt a formal constitution. From the point of view of the public, the most important feature of this document will be that which makes provision for more careful inquiry into the character of the stocks and bonds which are dealt in. Any extension of the endeavors already begun to render more difficult the public distribution of worthless paper, will be welcomed throughout the country.

Types of Popular Investments

SEARCH for means to employ prudently the savings of one who has accumulated only a few hundreds, painstaking though it has to be under existing conditions, need not necessarily be fruitless. There are some good railroad and industrial, and not a few municipal and public service corporation bonds to be had in denominations as low as \$100. Many of

them sell at prices to yield between 4 and 5 per cent. They are the most suitable for the average investor who is dissatisfied with the returns on a savings bank deposit. They offer more nearly the same degree of safety.

But there may be special circumstances operating to take one into the field of still higher income-bearing securities. If so, the demand will perhaps be more easily met, even though the care of selection must needs be greater.

Securities based upon improved real estate are being rapidly popularized. These differ widely in their fundamental characteristics, and in investment merits, but as a class they are gaining a sure and important position. They may be recommended in cases where they are to be purchased from "specialists" of long experience and good repute. Here the range of yield is between $4\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 per cent.

More recently much of the cream of the business originating with investors of moderate means appears to have been secured by those who have offered small issues of industrial preferred stocks with an average yield of 7 per cent. There are excellent investments of this type. Among the best of the newer ones are several of long-established concerns, so issued as either to constitute a permanent prior charge on earnings or to give to a majority of their owners the right to say what charges may be set up in the future. But those of untrained judgment should scarcely trust themselves in making definite selection of shares, however excellent they may be as a class.

Security dealers with careers long and distinguished enough to have constituted them "investment bankers" in that difficult specialty of industrial stocks are, in the nature of the case, scarce outside the larger cities. Fortunately, however, with the successful development of banking by mail, the advice of these bankers has been placed at the disposal of the investor, wherever he may be situated. It is upon such advice that he ought to place the most dependence.



THE AMERICANISM OF ROBERT HERRICK

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

THERE are some writers, with numerous volumes to their credit, whose art may easily be summarized in a few lines. Robert Herrick is not one of them. And yet he cannot be called versatile in the accepted sense. From first to last, his writings seem to follow certain clearly defined lines, both in form and thought and spirit. Though now and then venturing into the realm of verse, he is above all a writer of prose. And though from time to time he puts out charming short stories, the novel is his true field. Moreover, in that field he adheres closely to a manner of relation that had reached perfection even in his earliest books. Nor is it of any use to search his works for sudden changes of opinion or moods contrasting sharply against the prevailing temperamental background. For fifteen years he seems, on the whole, to have been moved by the same spirit, the same outlook upon life, the same conception of its deeper realities, the same intense craving to place the truth uppermost. Not as if he had not changed and grown, but his growth has moved him onward along lines distinctly foreshadowed from the first moment he endeavored to gain the ear of the public.

No, if it be found difficult, as I have found it, to characterize him in a few, quick sentences, the cause of this must be sought in the width of his horizons. To define him concisely is to define the American people itself. For among writers of our own day, living or dead, there is none that to me seems to have deserved more truly to be characterized as "national." And I am not having in mind the wholly subordinate fact that he moves his scene from one end of the country to the other, giving us in the same volume equally faithful pictures of New England and Chicago, of the big city and the depopulated country. He is national for no less reason than the reflection of our entire, vast American panorama on every page, in every sentence, of all his larger works. Like a true artist, he is always working in terms of individual life—placing before us a gallery of real men and women such as perhaps no other American writer and few foreign ones can be credited with—but in what happens to those individuals we find mirrored what is at the same time happening to the nation in its entirety. Strikes, panics, country-wide unrests, "booms" that reach from ocean to ocean—these are present everywhere not only as painted backgrounds, hanging flatly and stiffly behind the moving creatures in the foreground, but as vital factors, affecting intimately the daily lives of the simplest and humblest.

This being so, one might expect to find Herrick widely read and highly praised. But such is far from the case. None of his books can be said to have met with a truly popular success. And among the critics he has gained his just dues from only a few discerning spirits like William Dean Howells, Frederick Taber Cooper, and Francis Hackett. Again an explanation seems hard to

find—and again I venture to offer one that has occurred to me. All of Herrick's novels show plenty of "action," even when that word is applied in the narrower sense which makes movement almost synonymous with violence. His men and women live and love, fight and strive, suffer and rejoice. The sex note—so long predominant in all poetry—is heard from one cover to another in all his books. Business, nowadays the "theme" to which writers in fashion turn with increasing absorption, is treated with an insistency and insight such as perhaps none but Balzac has ever before bestowed on it. But for all this—and here comes my explanation—the real happenings of each story lie within the dim confines of human souls. Herrick's novels are, at bottom, psychological—physical movements have value only in so far as they render visible the subtle movements of the spirit within. And to an understanding of this deeper aspect of life the general reading public of our land has not yet arrived, I fear. On the other hand, there are signs a-plenty to indicate that such an understanding is now spreading rapidly, and herein I find the safest promise of a coming national recognition of Herrick's art.

He is still a young man, this writer who deals so audaciously with the secret powers that force and hem not only our public but our private existences. Born in 1868 at Cambridge, Mass., he has spent almost all his life in the shadow of some great institution of learning. A graduate of Harvard in the class of '90, he taught first in his own university and then at Chicago, where he has been professor of English since 1893. Now and then it has been hinted that his art took both the best and largest share of his time and energy. But I doubt that such is the case. If my information be correct, as I think, Professor Herrick has the deepest respect and affection for his original profession, and he stays on not merely to draw a salary but because of his devotion to the teacher's mission and his faith in his own ability to fill it. That he exerts a mighty influence over the students who come in contact with him is a well-known fact.

Having always held that the author's private life tends rather to obscure than to shed light on his writings, Professor Herrick has kept his own personality so scrupulously in the background that hardly an item of the usual silly gossip has found its way into print. What little has become known of his private existence outside of his immediate circle seems to show him capable of rising above his own idiosyncrasies to full and clear understanding of currents with which he has no inherent sympathy. He knows and loves every form of art, and some of the stories told about him indicate an almost uncanny sensitiveness to formal perfection. Yet every one of his books may be regarded as a plea for an "ethical" rather than "esthetical" conception both of life and of art.

Up to the present time he has published twelve volumes in all. As I have found no trace of any

complete bibliography, I shall give a chronological list of these volumes, leaving aside his verse and those short stories that have not been republished in book form:

"Literary Love-letters" (stories), 1897; "The Man Who Wins" (novel), 1897; "Love's Dilemma" (stories), 1898; "The Gospel of Freedom" (novel), 1898; "The Web of Life" (novel), 1900; "Jock o' Dreams, or the Real World" (novel), 1901; "Their Child" (novelette) 1903; "The Common Lot" (novel) 1904; "The Memoirs of an American Citizen" (novel), 1905; "Together" (novel), 1908; "The Master of the Inn" (story), 1908; "A Life for a Life" (novel), 1910.¹

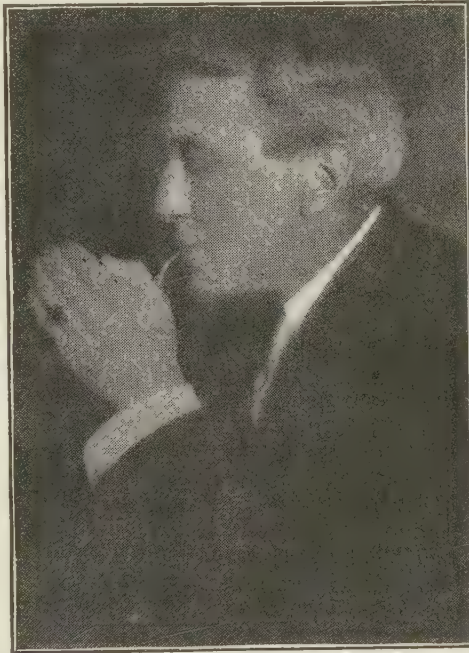
Beginning with "The Gospel of Freedom," each one of his novels would richly deserve a detailed analysis such as cannot come in question here. I have already referred to the dominant note of "nationalism," as opposed to our all too frequent and often all too futile "localism," that runs through them all. Another note not less prevalent may be described as "social" and juxtaposed to that overweening demand for individual expression which ran rampant through most of the literature rooting in the past century. This is the more surprising as Professor Herrick himself seems at heart to be strongly individualistic both in his sympathies and his proclivities. Nothing but true insight can account for this conquest of innate tendencies—an insight that finds one of its most striking formulations in a sentence from "The Web of Life," where Herrick says that: "In striving restlessly to get plunder and power and joy, men weave the mysterious web of life for ends no human mind can know."

¹The first two volumes were published by Scribner's, the third by Herbert S. Stone & Co. (Chicago) and all the rest by the Macmillan Company.

There is here also a distinct touch of mysticism that stands in sharp contrast with the realistic means generally employed by the author. And as we go on from novel to novel, we find this element more and more tangible, though never permitted to intrude itself to an extent that might obscure the everyday clearness of events and characters. Even Van Harrington, the man who began his career in the prisoner's pen of a Chicago police

court and whom we are permitted to follow to the very doors of the United States Senate, writes of his own experience: "All my life has been given to practical facts, yet I know that at the end of all things there are no facts." In "A Life for a Life," at last, this suggestion of vague, deep-lying realities, too subtle for clear formulation, swells into orchestral power, so that the whole work is colored by it and becomes intelligible only in so far as our own souls are open to its appeal. This latest novel of Professor Herrick's has left the naturalistic starting point and stands squarely on that advanced ground which has been cleared by such men as Ibsen, Maeterlinck and the Russian writers of the last fifty years. It is an immense allegory, but not of the kind that Bunyan gave us. Rather there is a kinship with that Greek sculpture which distilled the all-human out of the

fleeting humanity of the moment. Yet this art, which makes so strongly for the typical, is impressionistic at the same time, abandoning no whit of what the nineteenth century gained along these lines and insisting sharply on the uniqueness of the individual moment. It is in this combination of apparently opposed qualities that I seek the determining characteristic of the poetry that is to come, and it is because I discover just that combination in Herrick's later work that I expect him to give us what we have not yet—an American "Comédie Humaine."



ROBERT HERRICK, WRITER OF "NATIONAL" NOVELS



THE NEW BOOKS

BIOGRAPHY

IT has been said that one of the ironies of the history of philosophy is the fact that Friedrich Nietzsche, the "high poet and calamitous philosopher," must be judged "in the serene atmosphere of history which he infinitely despised." A clear, impartial study of the life of Nietzsche, which appeared some years ago from the pen of the Frenchman, Daniel Halévy, has now been translated into English.¹ In this volume we get not only the philosopher but the man,—a sort of personal acquaintance with that extraordinary being who died comparatively unknown only a decade ago and yet who has, in that short time, become (as he himself predicted) one of the great European reputations of the nineteenth century. The present volume (translated by J. M. Hone) has an appreciative introduction by T. M. Kettle.

A new life of Oliver Goldsmith,² by Frank Frankfort Moore, has for an introduction the happily phrased remarks of Boswell, Dr. Johnson's biographer, on the author of "The Deserted Village." Boswell, it will be remembered, called Goldsmith "the Benjamin of the large family of eighteenth century poets, of whom Dryden was the Jacob and Pope the Judah." All Englishmen, to quote further from Boswell's words written at the time, "venerate Dryden, admire Pope, esteem Young, quote Gray, neglect Thomson, ignore Johnson, tolerate Cowper, and love Goldsmith." The literature of Goldsmithiana is increasing every year. The present volume is ample enough in the number of pages and sufficiently full in personal description and references to make it a welcome addition to the already large list.

A very sympathetic study of the life of one of the most sympathetic characters of all French history, Lafayette, comes to us under the title "The Household of the Lafayettes,"³ by Edith Sichel. The family of the Lafayettes, this illuminating biographer tells us, belong to the small company, so little known, of "holy-minded men and women who irradiate the last years of the old order in France." A study of the aristocratic world at Paris in the second half of the eighteenth century shows many winsome and great-souled personalities, as well as perhaps a greater number of the sordid, cruel, and corrupt kind. Miss Sichel makes the Lafayette family stand for the very best and noblest in the old régime of France, which tried "vainly to stem the tide of revolution by calling a recreant aristocracy to set its house in order."

SOCIOLOGY: ECONOMICS

Through its publications, as well as its other activities, the Russell Sage Foundation is doing much to stimulate and direct the saner forms of charitable effort. A series of four volumes⁴ devoted to the general subject of correction and prevention was prepared for the Eighth International

Prison Congress, held in Washington last October. Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson, of the University of Chicago, is the responsible editor of the series. The first volume is devoted to a survey of prison reform by the editor and to an essay on "Criminal Law in the United States" by President Eugene Smith of the Prison Association of New York. In the second volume "Penal and Reformatory Institutions" are considered by sixteen leading authorities. Dr. Henderson treats in the third volume of "Preventive Agencies and Methods," and a special volume on the "Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children" is contributed by Dr. Hastings H. Hart, of the Sage Foundation, assisted by various specialists who write on special topics. The extremely practical bearing of the work now being conducted by the Sage Foundation is illustrated by the attention that it has given to the new use of concrete as a building material. The frontispiece of Dr. Hart's volume is a photograph of an up-to-date children's cottage built of concrete and provided with outdoor sleeping porches.

Prof. Charles Zueblin, formerly of the University of Chicago, author of "The Religion of a Democrat," has just brought out a new volume of essays which he has entitled "Democracy and the Overman."⁵ In his trenchant, at times bitter, style, Professor Zueblin pays his compliments to the "overspecialized" business man, the "overestimated" Anglo-Saxon, the "overcomplacent" American, the "overthrown superstition" of sex, the "overdue wages of the overman's wife," the "overtaxed credulity" of newspaper readers, the "overworked political platitudes," and the "overlooked charters" of cities.

Miss Emma Goldman, who has been characterized as "the most notorious, insistent, rebellious, and enigmatical person in the United States of America," has just published her first book. This volume, entitled "Anarchism and Other Essays,"⁶ sets forth her point of view on anarchism in general, prisons, patriotism, puritanism, woman, marriage and love, and the drama. These essays, written in a clear, lucid, and very often fascinating style, set forth in the main the philosophy of anarchism. There is an introduction to the book, consisting of a biographical sketch of Miss Goldman, by Hippolyte Havel. Miss Goldman's point of view on the violence usually attributed to the influence of anarchistic ideas is interesting, because honest. "If you press down humanity far enough," she contends, "some one will rise up and strike." While not committing any act of violence herself, she refuses to condemn such an act. "I do not approve it or condemn it. It is like an act of nature, beyond our praise or our condemnation."

Railroad rate-making is a matter involving so many technicalities and intricacies that it can receive no adequate or satisfactory treatment except at the hands of practical railroad men. This fact has been clearly recognized by Dr. Emory R. Johnson and Dr. Grover G. Huebner, of the University of Pennsylvania, who have written

⁵ "Democracy and the Overman. By Charles Zueblin. New York: B. W. Huebsch. 217 pp. \$1.

⁶ "Anarchism and Other Essays. By Emma Goldman. New York: Mother Earth Publishing Association. 277 pp. por. \$1.

¹ The Life of Friedrich Nietzsche. By Daniel Halévy. Macmillan. 268 pp. \$2.50.

² The Life of Oliver Goldsmith. By F. Frankfort Moore. Dutton. 492 pp. por. \$3.50.

³ The Household of the Lafayettes. By Edith Sichel. Dutton. 354 pp. por. \$2.

⁴ Correction and Prevention. Edited by Charles Richmond Henderson. New York Charities Publication Committee. 4 vols., 1322 pp., ill. \$10.

a two-volume work on "Railroad Traffic and Rates"¹ for the purpose of providing railroad men and students of transportation problems with information regarding the detailed work of those who have to do with railroad traffic and rate-making. In this work the authors have utilized a great amount of information, advice, and criticism contributed by railroad men the world over. Much of the material has been obtained not from printed sources only, but through the medium of correspondence. Thus a larger proportion of the data used has never before appeared in print. The first volume deals with the freight service and the second with the passenger, express, and mail services.

In this country we have been in the habit of assuming that public ownership of telephones is virtually impossible. Whether our general policy in this regard shall ever be changed or not, it is at least important that we should know something about the experience of other countries with the telephone monopoly. Dr. A. N. Holcombe, of Harvard University, has spent two years in Europe trying to find out just how the telephone business has been managed in those countries where it is under public authority. He has written a book² of nearly 500 pages setting forth the facts that he has discovered and attempting, in the conclusion, to interpret the significance of European experience for the American reader. Far from advocating any particular policy for adoption in the United States, Dr. Holcombe sets forth the results of European experience in public management and leaves the reader to form his own opinion of the relative value of such experience.

A striking work of social interest on the borderland between fact and fiction is the account of how one William Carleton (evidently a pen name), "a middle class New Englander, emigrated to America." "One Way Out"³ is the way he entitles his narrative. At thirty-eight this man lost his position in the office of a large corporation. He was then "too old" to get another. He and his wife and boy decided to do the daring, original thing of leaving their little suburban home and "emigrate" to America. How they went about this and how they succeeded are vividly and graphically told in nineteen chapters that shed considerable illumination on the present problem of the cost of living.

POLITICS

The addresses delivered by ex-President Roosevelt in August and September of last year, during a journey of over 5000 miles through fourteen States, have been collected in a little volume entitled "The New Nationalism,"⁴ prefaced with an introduction by Ernest Hamlin Abbott. As the conclusion of the volume an *Outlook* editorial by Dr. Lyman Abbott is reprinted for the sake of providing a sort of historical summary of the subject.

Twelve lectures by Dr. Lyman Abbott on "The Spirit of Democracy" are included in the little volume bearing this title.⁵ Some of the chapter headings are "Present Conditions in Industry,"

"Political Socialism," "The Tendency of Democracy," "The Home, the Church, the School," and "Who Should Govern?"

SCIENCE

The position occupied in the world of modern philosophic thought by Prof. Wilhelm Ostwald commands the respectful attention of the entire modern world of scientific and philosophic thought. Professor Ostwald, who won the Nobel Prize for chemistry in 1909, was professor of physical chemistry at the University of Leipsic for thirty years. He was exchange professor at Harvard in 1905. His work, "Natural Philosophy,"⁶ the first to give a résumé of modern natural philosophy as opposed to the old academic systems, attempts to present a brief survey of all the sciences and to provide "a complete synthesis of the results of the specialization of the last half-century." The translation from the German (with the author's special revision for the American edition) has been made by Thomas Seltzer.

WORKS OF REFERENCE

"The American Year Book"⁷ marks a distinct advance in the method of compiling statistical annuals. All works of this class, to have value for purposes of reference, must be made up of contributions from many sources. It is something to have the vast field of knowledge marked off and subdivided and each of the subdivisions put in the charge of a responsible specialist to whom matters in dispute may be referred. Such an arrangement has been perfected in the organization of the new "Year Book's" editorial staff, which is really a supervisory board made up of official representatives and members of thirty-two national learned and technical societies, headed by an executive committee under the chairmanship of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard, while Dr. S. N. D. North, former Director of the Census, has served as managing editor. The result of this coöperation is a compact volume of 850 closely printed pages, resembling in general form and style the well-known "Statesman's Year Book" of Great Britain, but differing from that publication in the nature and scope of its subject matter. The American annual gives a smaller proportion of space to tabulated statistics than its London contemporary, but it makes up for this deficiency (if it is a deficiency) by supplying authoritative summaries of progress in the various departments of science. The work is broader than a handbook of government and deals with more of the essential facts of contemporary history.

A useful reference book on the China of 1911 has been brought out by the *National Review* of Shanghai. It is entitled "The Provinces of China," and consists of a mass of statistical and other data about the administrative and economic condition of the Celestial Empire at the present day. The figures of population, industry, government, and general social conditions are presented in easily accessible form. The book is not sold generally but presented to the subscribers to the *National Review*.

The sixty-third annual issue of the English "Who's Who"⁸—the edition for 1911—which has just made its welcome appearance, contains 2246

¹ Railroad Traffic and Rates. By Emory R. Johnson and Grover G. Huebner. D. Appleton & Co. 2 vols. 970 pp., ill. \$5.

² Public Ownership of Telephones on the Continent of Europe. By A. N. Holcombe. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 482 pp. \$2.

³ One Way Out. By William Carleton. Small, Maynard and Company. 303 pp. \$1.20.

⁴ The New Nationalism. By Theodore Roosevelt. Baker & Taylor Co. 268 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ The Spirit of Democracy. By Lyman Abbott. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 215 pp. \$1.25.

⁶ Natural Philosophy. By Wilhelm Ostwald. Holt. 193 pp. \$1.

⁷ The American Year Book. Edited by S. N. D. North. D. Appleton & Co. 867 pp. \$3.50.

⁸ Who's Who, 1911. Macmillan Company. 2246 pp. \$2.50.

pages. This biographical dictionary, as we have had occasion to remark many times before, is one of the very few absolutely indispensable reference books.

The first volume of a "Cyclopedia of Education"¹ has just come from the Macmillan press. The editor of this work, strangely enough the first of its scope in the English language, is Professor Paul Monroe of the Teachers' College, Columbia University. In the work of preparation he had the assistance of fifteen departmental editors and more than 1000 individual contributors. The aim of the editorial staff has been to include in these volumes a concise discussion of all topics of im-

¹ A Cyclopedia of Education. Edited by Paul Monroe. Macmillan. 654 pp., ill. Vol. I. \$5.

portance and interest to the teacher, and to give such information concerning educational practice as is essential to a book of reference. Completeness of scope has been sought rather than completeness of treatment. Many of the leading educational specialists of this and other lands have coöperated in producing this great work, not merely for the sake of making a useful work of reference, but in the hope that by standardizing and organizing a great mass of information that has heretofore remained unsystematized something may be contributed to the solution of educational problems. It would seem that a cyclopedia of this kind affording direct aid to those engaged in educational work must necessarily assist materially in unifying educational thought and practice.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

A Short History of Women's Rights. By Eugene A. Hecker. Putnam.

African and European Addresses by Theodore Roosevelt. Putnam.

American House Building in Messina and Reggio. By Reginald Rowan Belknap. Putnam.

An Eastern Voyage. By Count Fritz von Hochberg. 2 vols. Dutton.

Behind the Screens in Japan. By Evelyn Adam. Putnam.

Embers (Lyrics). By Maurine Hathaway. Minneapolis: George W. Parker Art Company.

Fighting with Fremont. By Everett McNeil. Dutton.

Fundamentals in Education, Art, and Civics. By George Lansing Raymond. Funk & Wagnalls.

Gold Production and Future Prices. By Harrison H. Brace. New York: Bankers Publishing Company.

Guide to Reading in Social Ethics and Allied Subjects. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.

Howard Taylor Ricketts and His Work in Combating Typhoid Fever (Spanish). Mexico: Tip de la Vda. De F. Diaz de Leon, Sucs.

Industrial Accidents and Their Compensation. By Gilbert L. Campbell. Houghton, Mifflin.

Introduction to Political Science. By Raymond Garfield Gettell. Ginn & Co.

Life of Charles Sumner. By Walter G. Shottwell. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Life of Hiram Paulding. By Rebecca Paulding Meade. Baker & Taylor.

Magicians' Tricks: How They Are Done. By Henry Hatton and Adrian Plate. Century.

Mother Love. By August Strindberg. Philadelphia: Brown Brothers.

The Creditor: A Tragic Comedy. By August Strindberg. Philadelphia: Brown Brothers.

Open Air Crusaders. Report of the Elizabeth McCormick Open Air School. Edited by Sherman C. Kingsley. Chicago: United Charities.

Orchids for Everyone. By C. H. Curtis, F.R.H.S. Dutton.

Presidential Addresses and State Papers of William Howard Taft. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Report of the Commissioner of Education (1910), Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Social Adjustment. By Scott Nearing. Macmillan.

Steamships and Their Story. By E. Keble Chatterton. Cassell & Co.

Territorial Governments of the Old Northwest. By Dwight G. McCarty. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa.

The Cradle of the Deep: An Account of a Voyage to the West Indies. By Sir Frederick Treves. Dutton.

The Essentials of Character. By Edward O. Sisson. Macmillan.

The Fate of Henry of Navarre. By John Bloundelle-Burton. John Lane Company.

The Fruits of the Tree. By William Jennings Bryan. Fleming H. Revell Company.

The High Court of Parliament and Its Supremacy. By Charles Howard McIlwain. New Haven: Yale University Press.

The Pianoforte and Its Music. By Henry Edward Krehbiel. Scribners.

The Poems of Sir Philip Sidney. Edited by John Drinkwater. Dutton.

The Poems of Sophie Jewett. Edited by Louise R. Jewett. T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The Political Development of Japan. By George E. Uyebara. Dutton.

The Stone Age in North America. By Warren K. Moorehead. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin.

We of the Never Never. By Mrs. Eneas Gunn. Macmillan.

William Blake. By G. K. Chesterton. Dutton. World Corporation. By King C. Gillette. Boston: New England News Company.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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HON. CHAMP CLARK—NEXT SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE

The choice of the Democratic members of the Sixty-second Congress for Speaker of the House is the Hon. Champ Clark, who for many years has represented the Ninth Missouri District. Mr. Clark was born in Kentucky sixty-one years ago. His name is a shortening of his mother's family name (Beauchamp). His education was obtained in the public schools, at Kentucky University, at Bethany College, and at the Cincinnati Law School. At the age of twenty-three Mr. Clark became president of Marshall College in West Virginia, but he soon returned to the profession of the law, removing to Missouri and engaging in practice at Bowling Green in that State. He became prosecuting attorney of Pike County in 1885 and four years later was sent to Congress from his district. With the exception of two Congresses,—the Fifty-second and the Fifty-fourth,

—Mr. Clark has served continuously in the House for the past twenty-two years and last fall was reelected to the Sixty-second Congress. In the second session of the Sixtieth Congress and in the Sixty-first Congress he was minority leader of the House. For many years he has been a member of the Ways and Means Committee. In 1904 he was permanent chairman of the Democratic National Convention at St. Louis. Mr. Clark is famous in Congress for his wit and readiness in debate, for his knowledge of American history, and for his suavity and self-control under all circumstances.

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No. 4

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*After
Fifty
Years*

Fifty years ago last month Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated at Washington. It will be fifty years on April 12 since the firing upon Fort Sumter, which is usually regarded as the opening act of the great war. Last month, at Augusta, Georgia, the President of the United States was enjoying a few days of recreation on a golf course, where Confederate rifle pits formed conspicuous hazards in the game. One of President Taft's fellow-sojourners at Augusta was the Hon. Robert T. Lincoln, himself a Republican who had seen service as Secretary of War, and son of the first Republican President. No guests could have been treated in Georgia with more kindness and respect than is always shown to the son of Abraham Lincoln, and to Lincoln's present Republican successor in the White House. The heroic men of fifty years ago, whether Federal or Confederate, will survive in our history as typical sons of America. Their resemblances will seem far more striking than their differences. We are glad to present to our readers this month an article from the pen of the Rev. Dr. Randolph H. McKim, of Washington, who served in the Confederate Army and whose pen-pictures of that period we have illustrated with original Confederate photographs which have never before been made public. Accompanying this article is a strong presentation by Rear-Admiral Chad-



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PRESIDENT TAFT AT ATLANTA, GEORGIA, LAST MONTH

(Directly in front of President Taft is Secretary Norton, who retires on April 4)

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VETERANS OF THE CIVIL WAR FROM THE SOLDIERS' HOME AT HAMPTON, VIRGINIA, WATCHING THE EMBARKATION OF TROOPS FROM FORTRESS MONROE ON MARCH 14, DESTINED FOR THE MEXICAN FRONTIER

wick of the services performed by the Federal navy in the great struggle.

*Pensions
and the
South*

In the closing hours of the Sixty-first Congress, early last month, a bill greatly increasing the aggregate amount of pension money paid to Union veterans, which had passed the lower House, and was about to pass the Senate, was defeated upon a point of order raised by Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts. The country is wholly generous in its attitude of mind toward the survivors of the war that began fifty years ago. It does not follow, however, that new pension laws, carrying large appropriations, ought to be passed without careful study and thorough discussion. There is one phase of the pension question that is not often emphasized, yet it deserves to be stated in a spirit of candor. So far as the Northern States are concerned, large pension payments involve no economic waste or drain. The money is collected from the people by taxation and is paid back, somewhat unevenly, to the communities from which it is drawn. The South, however, is not affected in this way. The number of Federal pensioners living in the Southern States is comparatively

small. The annual pension bill for the veterans of '61-5 affects the South somewhat as if it were paying each year,—year after year,—a substantial war indemnity as punishment for a devastating struggle entered upon half a century ago. It is probably true that if the Federal veterans now surviving could by their own free will extend the pension system to the survivors of the Southern armies they would be heartily glad to do it. Several of the Southern States have recently increased very greatly the amounts paid by them to surviving Confederate veterans, and in these cases,—as recently in the Tennessee Legislature,—Republicans and sons of Union soldiers are as ready to appropriate these necessary sums as are the sons of Confederates.

*The South De-
serves National
Consideration*

It is merely just that Congress should remember that the Southern States to-day are not only caring for Confederate survivors but are at the same time contributing toward the payment of Federal pensions in the North a much larger sum than they are able to devote to the welfare of indigent Confederates. We have no remedy of any kind to propose for a situation that the South itself bears with

dignity, and with few protestations. But the South as a region has not thus far in our history profited quite so much as have New England and the North and West by reason of federal policies, whether economic or otherwise. Happily, sectionalism has to a great extent disappeared, whether considered from the standpoint of sentiment or from that of public policy. The great resources of the South have not as yet had so high a degree of development as those of most other parts of the country. There are many good reasons of statesmanship, as well as of right feeling, which should actuate us in doing as much for the South henceforth as we have heretofore done for the North and the West. The spirit of self-help is fully aroused in the South, and the Commercial Congress held last month at Atlanta gave expression to the sort of energy and optimism that must result in colossal achievements in the early future. Southern agriculture is at the beginning of a great revival. Southern water-powers are being developed, and cotton mills are rapidly increasing in their number and their output. Southern education is advancing all along the line under the difficulties involved in providing schools for two races. The country as a whole has done only a little of what it ought to do for Southern schools. As for Southern agriculture, it will flourish because of the advantages afforded by superior climate and the relatively low price of land. The foundations of Southern prosperity are now laid firmly, and the future is bright.

*Southern
Statesmen at
the Front*

It so happens that we shall have a fairly good prospect of hearing from Southern statesmen in the near future. On the fourth day of the present month of April the Sixty-second Congress will assemble in special session, and it will organize with a Democratic majority of sixty-six, the Democratic members numbering 228 and the Republicans 162. Inasmuch as the new Democratic seats have been gained in Northern districts heretofore Republican, it is obvious that the Democrats of longer experience in the House are for the most part from the South and from certain stable Democratic communities like New York City. Thus the Speakership will be accorded to the Hon. Champ Clark, who has seen twenty years of service as a member from Missouri, and who is a very typical American citizen. Mr. Clark is a man of upright and straightforward personal qualities, genial and conciliatory in his manners, and broadly patriotic in his sentiments. Next to Mr. Clark the most

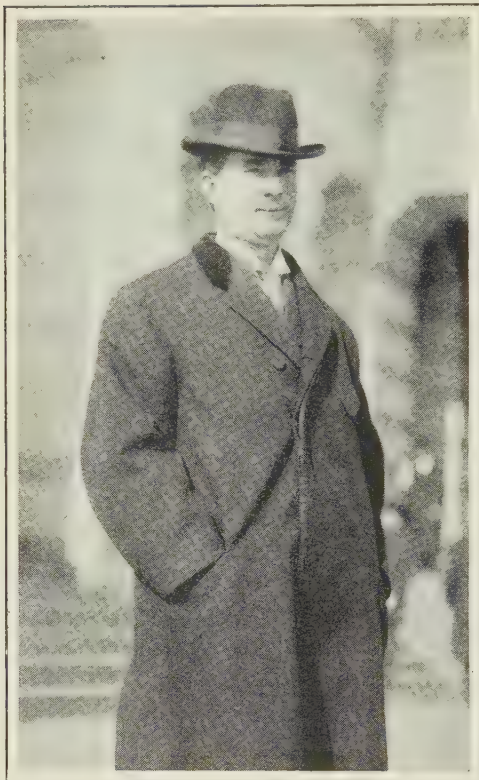


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HON. OSCAR UNDERWOOD, OF ALABAMA
(Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee and Democratic floor leader)

influential man in the new Congress will be the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, Hon. Oscar W. Underwood, of Birmingham, Alabama. He has already served sixteen years continuously in the House and has been the ranking minority member of the great committee of which he now becomes chairman, succeeding the Hon. Seno Payne, of New York. The committee over which Mr. Underwood presides has a new importance because the Democrats have agreed to transfer to it the authority hitherto exercised by the Speaker of the House to select the members of all the other standing committees.

*Leaders in
the New
Congress*

The Ways and Means Committee was appointed by a Democratic caucus in January, at the same time that Mr. Champ Clark was selected as Speaker. This committee has been busy during the past month in arranging the committee assignments which it will be prepared to submit for final approval to a full caucus of the Democratic majority on April 1, just before Congress convenes. While there is no warrant for supposing that chairmanships will be assigned as a matter of course to the men who in the last Congress served as rank-



From the American Press Association, N. Y.

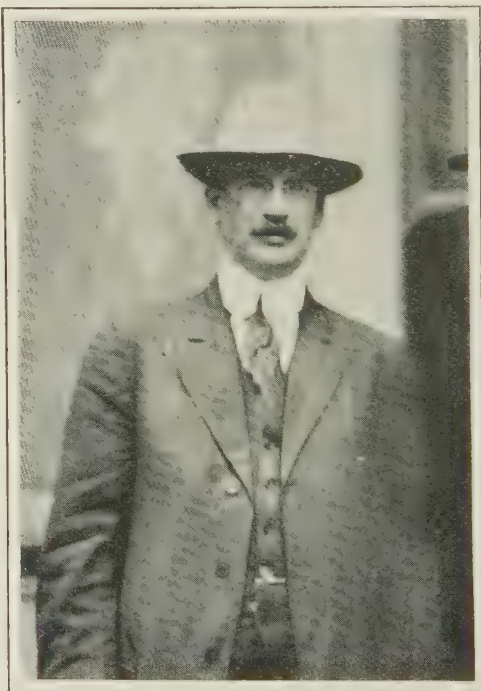
A SNAPSHOT OF MR. HENRY, OF TEXAS

ing minority members, yet doubtless there will be a tendency to recognize important previous service by giving chairmanships to those Democrats who have heretofore had senior party rank on their respective committees. Next to the Ways and Means Committee it is permissible to regard the Rules Committee as exercising a greater power than any other. It seems generally understood that the Hon. Robert Lee Henry, of Texas, is to be chairman of that committee. Mr. Henry has served continuously during the past seven terms, and is an excellent parliamentarian, although the Hon. John J. Fitzgerald, of New York, has a wider reputation as an authority upon rules and procedure than any other Democrat in the House. Mr. Fitzgerald, however, is said to be slated for the chairmanship of the Committee on Appropriations; and the Democratic caucus had resolved that the Rules Committee should not be made up of men holding posts at the head of other great committees. Mr. Fitzgerald, who is still under forty, is beginning his thirteenth year of continuous service in the House from a Brooklyn district; and if, indeed, it is to fall to his lot to succeed Mr.

Tawney in dealing with the great supply bills that aggregate a thousand million dollars a year his responsibilities will be heavy.

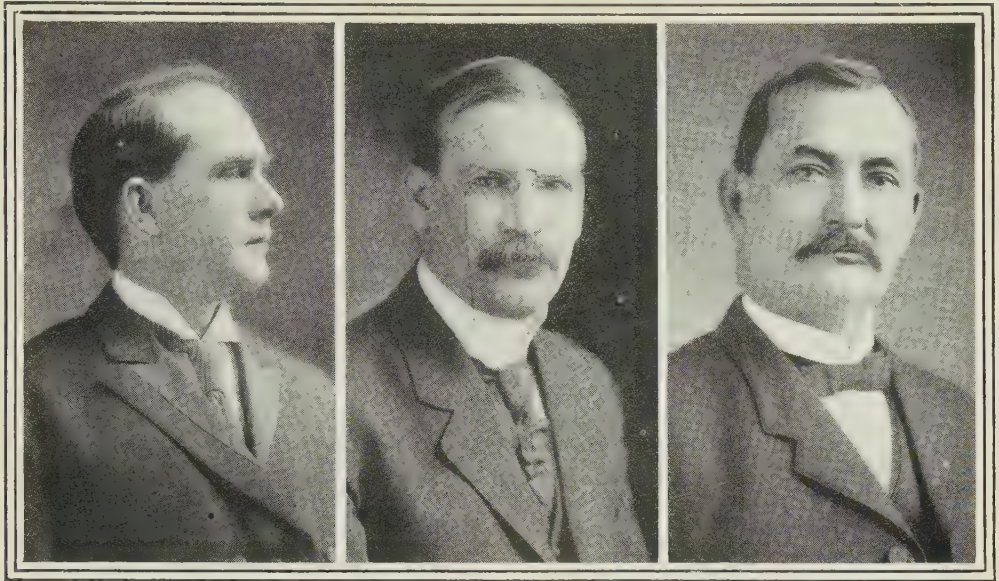
*Tariff
to the
Forefront*

When once the session opens it will be the Ways and Means Committee upon which the country's attention will be chiefly focused. This is because the extra session is called for the sake of dealing with questions that must first be considered and reported upon by the committee that deals with revenue matters. On March 4, at the conclusion of the session, the Sixty-first Congress having reached the end of the term for which it was elected, President Taft issued a brief proclamation calling upon the new Congress to assemble at noon on April 4. His proclamation recited the fact that the agreement with Canada regarding reciprocal tariff legislation had made it the duty of the President to use his best efforts to make the arrangement operative; and since the House had passed the desired bill but the Senate had not reached a vote, it was thought by the President that an extraordinary occasion had arisen which justified the calling of a special session. There was no desire on the part of the leaders of either House, or of either party, for this early meeting of the Sixty-second



From the American Press Association, N. Y.

MR. FITZGERALD AS SEEN LAST MONTH



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MR. HENRY, OF TEXAS

MR. FITZGERALD, OF NEW YORK

MR. ADAMSON, OF GEORGIA

THREE DEMOCRATIC LEADERS WHO WILL BE PROMINENT IN THE NEW CONGRESS

Congress. Several matters of great public interest occupied the time of the Senate so that it seemed almost impossible to adopt the appropriation bills before the 4th of March. But by tremendous effort and several all-night sessions in the last week of the term, all necessary business was completed, and the session adjourned.

The Reciprocity Agreement

The reciprocity treaty had made its appearance as a surprise to Congress. Every one knew, of course, that an agreement of this kind was in process of negotiation. In his regular message at the opening of the session, Mr. Taft had referred to the negotiations and had informed Congress that they were to be resumed at Washington in the month of January, having been postponed in November at Ottawa. There was nothing in the message to suggest the idea that the January negotiations could result in the completion of a great reciprocal tariff measure in time for its adoption by Congress in a session which must have accomplished its principal work during February. But it had so happened that two cabinet ministers came from Ottawa as representatives of the Canadian Government early in January, and they worked upon the treaty in direct relation with Secretary Knox. These men of high authority made progress rapidly and signed the document on January 21. This trade agreement was transmitted to the Senate in a special message from Presi-

dent Taft on January 26. The message stated in a strong and convincing manner the broad reasons for closer trade relations with our neighbors who share with us this developing continent. There was every presumption in favor of the treaty's ultimate acceptance.

*Making
Political
History*

But President Taft's special message had not intimidated any reasons of emergency, requiring Congressional action without the usual processes of consideration in committee and debate upon the floor of each House. A great trade agreement of this kind, though a diplomatic affair while in the process of negotiation, becomes thereafter as much a matter of legislation as any other tariff or revenue measure. It must be remembered that many things had happened since reciprocity negotiations had been originally begun. For one thing, there had been a national election, in which the party in power had been decisively beaten, the tariff question being the foremost issue. The Republicans, in the Presidential campaign of 1908, had promised a thorough-going revision and reduction of the tariff. The country had taken them at their word. In a special session called for that purpose just two years ago, the Republicans had enacted the Payne-Aldrich tariff, which they offered as a full solution of the tariff problem for at least ten years to come. The Administration had accepted the work of Congress, and had com-



Photograph by Clinedinst, Washington

CANADIAN MINISTERS AS RECIPROCITY ENVOYS AT WASHINGTON, BEING ESCORTED TO CALL ON PRESIDENT TAFT BY TWO OF THE AMERICAN NEGOTIATORS.

(From left to right, Hon. Chas. M. Pepper, of the State Department; Hon. William Patterson, Canadian Minister of Customs; Hon. W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance, and Hon. Chandler Hale, of the State Department)

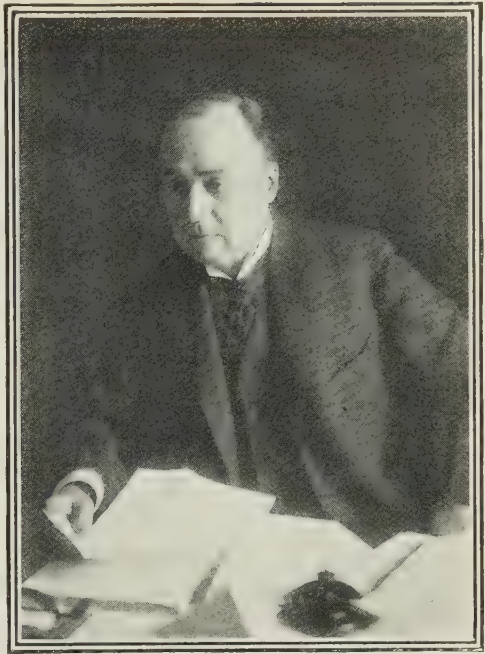
mended it to the country with much laudation. But the Democrats and the insurgent Republicans had criticized the Payne-Aldrich tariff in a spirit of extreme hostility. Negotiations for a reduced reciprocal tariff between Canada and the United States had been entered upon from the standpoint of the Payne-Aldrich tariff as a permanent enactment.

*Changed
Tariff
Conditions* The sweeping Democratic victory in the Congressional elections of November, 1910, changed the situation entirely. The Democrats had accepted a mandate from the country to overhaul the Payne-Aldrich tariff. Under these circumstances, a reciprocal tariff agreement with Canada had to be considered from the standpoint of proposed changes in the general tariff system, rather than from that of the Payne-Aldrich act. The Democrats might reasonably have asked to be allowed to consider the reciprocity agreement next winter at the regular session in connection

with their proposed revision of the tariff as a whole. The Republicans, moreover, were not prepared in either House for any kind of action in immediate modification of the existing tariff. Thus it happened that an agreement which under other circumstances might have been most opportune, and which had much to commend it from the standpoint of the nation's larger policies, was urged upon Congress at a very inconvenient moment.

*The President's
Urgency* President Taft had persuaded himself that its immediate acceptance would be an important victory for his administration and a good thing for the country. By arguments addressed to individual Senators, and by daily announcements through the newspaper correspondents, President Taft brought himself to an attitude of mind that had not been suggested in his message. He declared that if the agreement were not passed he would call a special session of the new Congress.

As matters stood, it was doubtful whether measures already pending and far advanced could be acted upon in the brief period remaining. The Democrats in the House, under the lead of Mr. Champ Clark,—desiring to avert an extra session and willing also to put the Republican majority in a difficult position,—promptly declared themselves in favor of the reciprocity agreement. Mr. McCall, of Massachusetts, a Republican tariff reformer, took the lead as against the great majority of the House Republicans, including Speaker Cannon and the chief members of the Ways and Means Committee. It was necessary to secure a special rule under which the bill ratifying the agreement could be reported to the House and voted upon without amendments or real debate. It seemed impossible to obtain such a ruling. Everything turned upon the action of Mr. Boutell, of Illinois, of the Rules Committee, who had usually been relied upon to act in harmony with Speaker Cannon. Mr. Boutell, however, had lost his seat in Congress and was serving his last term. It also happened that he was an earnest applicant for an appointment at the hands of President Taft. Mr. Boutell was persuaded to favor the special rule; and so reciprocity was passed through the House without being read or considered. His excellent services in Congress and as a public man have been promptly recognized by his appointment as minister to Portugal.



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HON. PHILANDER C. KNOX, SECRETARY OF STATE
(Who brought the reciprocity negotiations to a quick completion)

Even the Republicans of the House who felt constrained to vote for the agreement under these circumstances were very far from being pleased with the alternative that had been forced upon them. In the Senate there were no rules that could be taken advantage of, and there was no sentiment whatsoever in favor of an immediate vote upon the Canadian treaty. The McCall bill was allowed to be held back by the discussion of other measures. The Finance Committee was willing to have the measure reported without recommendation; but it was evident that there was a tacit understanding in the Senate that the bill should not reach the point of serious discussion. Not until the very last did the Senators believe that the President would call an extra session, in case all the appropriation bills were passed. Mr. Taft had, however, committed himself too definitely to be persuaded to change his mind, and so the extra session was duly called.



THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY NOW BECOMES THE STAR PERFORMER

(From the Jersey Journal, Jersey City)

The
Probable
Program

It would be idle to predict what the special session will do. In the call for the session, Mr. Taft mentioned no urgent business except the reciprocity agreement. By a parliamentary slip in the closing moments of the session, the Tariff Commission bill, which had passed both houses, failed to become a law. Presi-

dent Taft will probably ask Congress to make the Tariff Commission a fact, and he would naturally prefer that Congress should not deal at this time with any of the tariff schedules. If the Tariff Commission were set at work it would be prepared by December to supply Congress with a great mass of information on designated topics. It should be remembered that Congress increased the appropriation for the existing Tariff Board, and that Mr. Taft added to this board two members, namely, Mr. Howard, of Georgia, a retiring member of Congress, and Professor Page, of the University of Virginia. Professor Emery, and Messrs. Sanders and Reynolds, had already accomplished a great deal of work. If the Tariff Commission bill passes, these five men will be named as the commissioners. They will have enlarged prestige and authority, but otherwise will be doing the very work to which President Taft has already assigned them. Inasmuch as Mr. Taft proposes to deal with the tariff in a strictly non-partisan fashion, the Democrats may think it well to pass the reciprocity agreement and perhaps the commission bill, and leave further tariff work until December. It is natural, however, that they should seek to gain as much party prestige and advantage as they properly can from the opportunities that the Republicans have put in their hands. The business interests of the country would prefer a short session, regardless of achievements. Business men desire fixed conditions and otherwise take little interest in the tariff, one way or the other. But the consuming public, as represented by the classes drawing salaries and wages, would like to have changes of the tariff that would diminish the cost of living. The farmers are quite generally opposed to Canadian reciprocity unless accompanied by other tariff changes that will make clothing and various articles that farmers buy much cheaper than under the existing schedules.

The Senate in the Recent Session

There were long debates in the Senate during the closing weeks of the session upon the Lorimer case, upon the direct election of Senators by the people, and upon the Tariff Commission. President Taft's insistence upon the Canadian agreement had resulted in the virtual abandonment of the Tariff Commission bill. The group of "insurgent," or rather "progressive," Senators determined, however, to secure the passage of the commission bill, and they were successful. The measure was in charge of Senator Beveridge, who has for years been the sponsor of the tariff-commission plan and

who is the author of the clause in the Payne-Aldrich bill under which Mr. Taft's present Tariff Board is at work. Senator Beveridge also led in the discussion of the Lorimer case by virtue of the fact that he was the one Republican member of the investigating committee who reported adversely to the retention of his seat by Senator Lorimer. The debate was exhaustive, and the final vote resulted in 46 Senators voting in favor of Lorimer and 40 Senators voting against him. Some of those who voted for him evidently believed that he was entitled to the benefit of any doubt. The exact question, however, at issue was not whether Mr. Lorimer himself had done anything wrong, or whether he should be expelled. It was simply a question whether or not the Illinois Legislature had conducted a valid election. Senators Root, Beveridge, and others, showed plainly that the action of the Springfield Legislature had been tainted by bribery and corruption. Several of the Senators who voted in favor of Lorimer reached the end of their terms on March 4. A number of those who come in as new Senators will be likely to take the view held by the forty,—the kind of view that would be unanimous in the English House of Commons or in the parliamentary bodies of any other country in the world. Nothing whatever is to prevent the question from coming up again, inasmuch as this is not a matter of putting Mr. Lorimer on trial for an offense, but of deciding whether or not the United States Senate will condone such proceedings as those at Springfield. A case of this kind is only settled when the right view prevails.

Popular Election of Senators

The debate on the popular election of Senators was of more than usual interest and ability. For many years the House of Representatives has favored an amendment to the Constitution, while the Senate itself had never before allowed the question to be reported out of the Judiciary Committee. Senator Borah led the fight in favor of popular elections with ingenuity and talent. The most effective speech upholding the present plan was by Senator Root. If an amendment had not been brought forward involving the question of federal regulation and control of elections within the States, the general proposition in favor of directly electing Senators would probably have prevailed. A two-thirds majority was required, and the vote was 54 in favor and 33 against. It is expected that in the Senate as reconstituted this measure will easily pass, and then it will go to the States



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HON. CHARLES D. HILLES, THE NEW SECRETARY TO THE PRESIDENT

for final ratification. Meanwhile, a number of States are adopting the Oregon plan, under which the people are able to designate their choice for Senator, the members of the Legislature having agreed in advance to accept the popular verdict. Whether or not the Constitution is amended, the people will manage to do some things that appeal to them as desirable. We are destined to have a good deal of experience of direct popular action in various forms. Among the Senators the foremost champions of these ideas are Mr. Owen of Oklahoma on the Democratic side, and Mr. Bourne of Oregon on the Republican side. Thus in the closing days of Congress Senator Owen prevented the final admission of New Mexico as a State because Arizona's admission was being delayed on account of opposition to the radical features of the Arizona constitution. It seems that the people of Arizona have not only adopted the ideas of referendum, initiative, and recall, but have extended the recall to elected judges as well as to other elected officers. Whatever one may think of applying the recall to judges, there would seem no reason why Arizona should not settle a question of that kind for herself. This magazine objected to the ad-

mission of New Mexico and Arizona, merely because of the belief that they were not well enough developed to protect themselves against the mining corporations, railroads, and other outside capitalistic interests that would dictate the election of United States Senators and control their judicial and financial arrangements. The only salvation for communities of that kind would seem to be in somewhat radical methods of democracy.

Postal Affairs

The attempt described in these pages last month to force a novel change in second-class postage rates by the trick of a rider on an appropriation bill, was of course foredoomed to defeat. Postal rates are matters of wide public interest, and their change belongs obviously to the representatives of the people. No reason whatever exists for increasing rates on any class of matter; and keen, businesslike administration of the Post Office would make it possible in the future to lower rates and also to give the people a cheap, uniform parcels post. But it is useless to hope for these things until the Post-Office Department ceases to be run as a political machine and as an adjunct of the National Republican Commit-



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MR. WALTER L. FISHER

MR. RICHARD A. BALLINGER

THE NEW SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR AND HIS PREDECESSOR

tee. The Democrats are looking forward very hopefully to success in the next Presidential election. One of the important planks in the next Democratic platform ought to be a resolution demanding the business reorganization of the Post Office, and declaring that a Democratic President will refuse to follow the bad example of associating the one great business department of the Government with the management of campaigns and the control of party politics.

Two Executive Changes
President Taft begins the second half of his term with a new Secretary of the Interior, and with his third appointee in the office of Secretary to the President. Mr. Norton retires from this confidential post to become a vice-president of the First National Bank in New York. He had served for a time as an Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, where he fully justified the favorable predictions made for him by his Chicago friends. Mr. Charles D. Hilles, who becomes Secretary to the President, has also served for two years as an Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. He was originally an Ohio man, but had for some years been superintendent of a large juvenile asylum in the suburbs of New York. Mr. Hilles has un-

usual business ability, high personal qualities, and an undoubted aptitude for politics. The new member of the cabinet is Mr. Walter L. Fisher, of Chicago. He is a lawyer who has for a good many years been identified with the struggle to improve municipal conditions in his home city. He is vice-president of the National Conservation Association, of which Mr. Gifford Pinchot is president. He is a man of conviction, of courage, and of tenacity. Secretary Ballinger had undergone a great strain and he left office a good deal broken in health if not in spirit. It is a thousand pities that the so-called Ballinger-Pinchot controversy could not have been settled at its inception. Mr. Ballinger showed high qualities as an administrator, and if he could have exchanged places with Secretary Nagel, for example, great trouble would have been spared. The report of Senator Nelson and his associates of the investigating committee, after their long and fatiguing sessions, would seem to us to be fair and just. On the other hand, it has not seemed to us that President Taft is fully justified in his harsh characterization of the opponents of Mr. Ballinger. Their methods were not commendable, and they did not prove the things they had asserted. But the country in general believes that they

were actuated by zeal for the public welfare rather than by those motives which Mr. Taft ascribes to them when he denounces them as an "unscrupulous conspiracy." Mr. Ballinger has suffered greatly and has administered the Department of the Interior with exceptional ability under circumstances so painful that few men could have endured them.

The Railroad Rate Decision

On February 23 the Interstate Commerce Commission announced its unanimous decision in the matter of the general increase of rates asked for by the railroads of the East and Middle West. For over twelve months the decision has been anxiously awaited and elaborately discussed, the general expectation being that the railroads would get a part of what they asked for. The decision, as given by Commissioner Prouty for the Eastern roads and Commissioner Lane for the Western roads, is a sweeping refusal of the railroads' request. With the exception of a few minor instances of rate increases in the Southwest, where the Commission determined the roads were not so prosperous as in the North and East, no advance of rates is allowed to any of the hundreds of roads interested. The Commission announced that if the proposed new schedule was not cancelled by March 10, it would go further than a refusal to allow present increases and make a rule that for two years to come there should be none. The railroad men expressed great surprise at the nature of the decision, and tendered the Commission a request that they should be allowed merely to suspend the new and higher schedule of tariffs until November 1 of this year, in the belief that before that date the monthly reports of the earnings would add competent and sufficient testimony to the original contention that the higher rates were actually necessary for the efficient operation of the roads and the maintenance of their credit. This request, too, was refused.

The Contentions of the Railroads

The rate increases had been asked for by two groups of railroads. Those north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi had announced a revision of their class rates equivalent to a general increase of from 5 to 8 per cent. The roads of the Middle West had demanded an increase in commodity rates of about the same proportions. It was estimated that the increase would be about \$27,000,000. It was urged, in support of the new schedules, that the wage advances of 1910 amounted in the aggregate, for the rail-

roads of the country, to over \$100,000,000, and that very many of these wage advances were awarded by the Interstate Commerce Commission themselves, acting as arbitrators under the Erdmann Act. The railroads showed that aside from labor items their cost of living had increased all along the line, due to the large advance in the cost of materials and supplies in the last decade. It was urged that some increase in rates was absolutely necessary to enable the roads to give good service, and, most important, to enable them to sell securities for the purpose of extensions and improvements necessary to handle efficiently the always increasing volume of business.

The Commission's Answer

The burden of proving the reasonableness of higher freight rates is, under the present law, upon the railroads. Commissioners Prouty and Lane, in their elaborate and important decisions, refused to consider that the present or prospective condition of railroad earnings shows a real necessity for higher rates. It was frankly admitted by the Commission that if earnings had fallen to such a point that the credit of the railroads was impaired, the rates should be advanced; but the Commission maintained that, while the prices of railroad bonds were lower than they were ten years ago, this was due to a general raising of interest rates, and not to an impairment of credit resulting from the fright of investors over poor railroad earnings. It was pointed out that the current prices of municipal bonds had, in the past decade, fallen even more than the quotations on railroad bonds. The Commission estimated the net earnings of the railroads during the fiscal year 1910 and found them larger than in any previous year. It refused to consider the earnings of the last few months as an all-important argument, urging that larger cycles of experience must be used in deciding so important a question. Commissioner Lane said "the carriers of the United States have accumulated an unappropriated surplus amounting to \$800,642,923, whereas in 1899 this surplus, as given in the books of the carriers, was but \$194,106,367. In ten years, with an increasing maintenance charge and a vastly increased charge of interest, these carriers had accumulated a surplus of \$606,536,556, or an increase of 312 per cent. over 1899, while the mileage had increased only 36 per cent. Is it too much to say that such facts are a complete answer to those who persistently 'view with alarm' the outlook of American railroads?" This paragraph is

quoted because it gives well the spirit shown throughout the decisions. "You are not facing disaster," the Commission says, in effect; "you are doing fairly and will do better. Your securities are well regarded, at home and abroad, and the increase of business certain to come with the further growth of the country will amply compensate for the higher cost of living, wages included. It is true that this growth of business will probably come at a retarded date from now on, but still it will be enough. If it is not enough, and if we are mistaken, come to us again and have better figures than you have now, and we will reconsider the matter. In the meantime, try to economize and stop up leaks and make good contracts for material."

Silver Linings to the Cloud

The railroads have apparently determined to accept the decision without appeal to the Commerce Court and, later, to the Supreme Court. Most of them show an inclination to make the best of it, and already there are evidences of quiet contraction in expenses, laying off of any employees that can be spared and making haste slowly in the matter of extensions that had been contemplated. Many railroad men are frankly admitting that the new necessity for efficient and economical management is not altogether a bad thing. They are pleased, too, over the virtual ratification of the present schedule of rates as reasonable and proper, and believe that at least these will not be reduced. They feel that the sweeping character of the decision will operate to head off further demands from their employees for higher wages. They read with some gratification that portion of the decision which denied any intention on the part of the Commissioners of holding the carriers down to any maximum rate of earnings, and which gave boldly and decisively the opinion of the Commission that good and efficient management of a railroad ought to be allowed the larger earnings that resulted from such intelligent methods. No disaster resulting from the failure of the carriers to get what they wanted was indicated in the action of the stock market, which, after an exceedingly mild spasm, settled back to where it had been when every one apparently believed the railroads would get at least a compromise on the schedules.

The Corporation Tax Upheld

The Federal Supreme Court gave on March 13 a unanimous decision upholding the tax of 2 per cent. on incomes, above \$5000, of corporations. This tax, which had been imposed for

the calendar years 1909 and 1910, was attacked on various grounds, and the decision of the Supreme Court affirmed its validity in the case of fifteen different corporations doing as many different kinds of business. Justice Day, who gave the opinion of the court, set forth that the impost was an excise tax on the doing of corporate business, and not a direct tax on the holding of property,—as was the income tax pronounced unconstitutional in 1895. In reply to the contention that the Corporation Tax interfered with franchises created by State laws, the court denied that any authority rested with the States to impair and limit the exercise of authority essential to national existence. That the tax is unequal and arbitrary was also denied, on the ground that advantages are possessed by corporations in the doing of business which do not exist when the same business is done by individuals or partnerships. The objection on the score of the publicity given to corporation earnings was answered by the statement that this publicity is necessary to the proper application of the law. The Government took in, in 1909, something over \$27,000,000 from the Corporation Tax. There are 262,490 taxable corporations listed in the Internal Revenue Bureau, with capital stocks aggregating \$52,371,626,752, bonded and other indebtedness of \$31,383,952,696, and annual net incomes amounting to \$3,125,481,101.

Radicalism in the West

The fact that Arizona's radical constitution, with its initiative, referendum, and 'recall' provisions, has failed to meet with the approval of those in high places in Washington, is not likely to stay the advance of political radicalism in the Western States. The recall of judges was the features of the Arizona document that was most bitterly assailed in the Senate during the closing hours of the Sixty-first Congress. Yet that was already a part of the Oregon system of popular government and during the past winter the California Legislature adopted an amendment embodying the same principle. The Legislature has also submitted to the electorate of the State for approval constitutional amendments establishing the initiative and referendum, as well as a woman suffrage amendment. We commented last month on the operation of the recall in the matter of the Seattle mayoralty contest. The same device had already been employed in Los Angeles. The Pacific coast communities seem determined to give these new electoral methods a thorough trying-out.

*Britain and
America
as World
Peace Makers*

"Twice within the past twelve months the President of the United States has sketched out a step in advance more momentous than any one thing that any statesman in his position has ventured to say before." With these words, Sir Edward Grey, British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, began an address to the House of Commons on March 13. The occasion was the debate over the naval estimates. Several references had been made to the preparations being made at Washington for several months past by Ambassador Bryce and Secretary Knox, for a general arbitration treaty between the United States and Great Britain. When Congress assembles in its regular session next December, Mr. Knox hopes to be able to submit such a treaty to the Senate, providing for general and unlimited arbitration of all questions arising between the two nations. Sir Edward referred back to President Taft's remarks, made on December 17, at the dinner of the American Society for the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, which were repeated upon several other occasions. Mr. Taft said:

If we can negotiate and put through a positive agreement with some other nation to abide by the adjudication of an international arbitral court in every issue which cannot be settled by negotiations, no matter what it involves, whether honor, territory or money, we shall have made a long step forward by demonstrating that it is possible for two nations, at least, to establish between them the same system of due process of law that exists between individuals under a government.

The present treaty between the United States and Great Britain excepts questions



THE BRITISH FOREIGN MINISTER, SIR EDWARD GREY

(Who, last month, made a noteworthy speech in the House of Commons, heartily approving President Taft's suggestions with regard to the Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty)

relating to the national honor, "vital interests," and the rights of third countries, if such are involved.

*Sir Edward
Grey's Great
Speech*

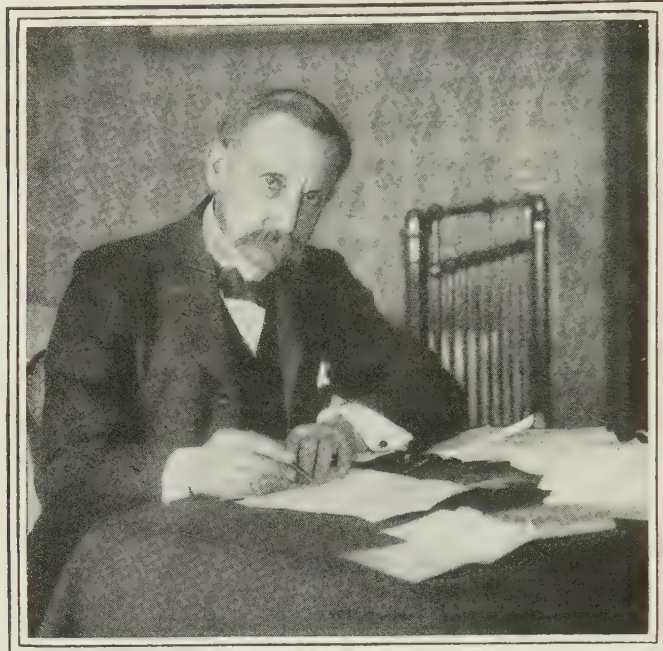
The British Foreign Secretary, frankly admitting his realization of the weight and importance of his remarks, then gave the following views of what British action might be under the circumstances:



THE PEACE MESSAGE

(Referring to Sir Edward Grey's endorsement of President Taft's views on international arbitration)
From the *World* (New York)

We have no proposal before us and, unless public opinion rises to the height of discussing a proposal of that kind, it cannot be carried out. But supposing two of the greatest nations of the world were to make it clear to the whole world by such an agreement that under no circumstances were they going to war again, I venture to say that it would have a beneficent effect. The nations that made such an agreement might be exposed to attack from a third power. This would probably lead to their following with an agreement to join each other in any case where one of them had a quarrel with a third nation which has refused to arbitrate. We should be delighted to receive such a proposal. I should feel it something so far-reaching in its consequences that it required not only the signature of both governments but the deliberately decided sanction of Parliament. That I believe would be obtained.



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BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT

(The eminent French advocate of international peace, who visited the United States last month)

*Its
Full
Significance*

The significance and importance of these remarks by Sir Edward Grey were at once recognized all over the world. Here we have not abstract forms of purely theoretical propositions, but the deliberate utterances of two responsible statesmen occupying the highest position in their respective countries in regard to the subject under discussion. While relating to an existing situation, they outline practical measures bearing, not only on that situation, but foreshadowing a comprehensive policy for dealing with international differences for all time. The British press heartily supports the Foreign Secretary in his point of view. Sir Edward, however, took early occasion to make answer to the inferences widely circulated in the press and on the platform that his ideas foreshadowed a formal alliance between Great Britain and the United States. At the annual dinner of the International Arbitration League, in London, on March 17, Sir Edward disclaimed any intention of conveying the idea that a formal alliance was contemplated, but said further:

If a general arbitration treaty were made between two great nations and became firmly rooted in the feelings of the people of both countries, and if one of them was in the course of time made the object of an attack in a dispute with a third power, in which arbitration had been offered to

*General
European
Approval*

In semi-official replies to Sir Edward's speech, made public in the parliaments of Germany and France, cordial support of the general idea of the Taft-Grey proposals is evident. Mr. Balfour, leader of the opposition to the government in the House of Commons, "amid cheers such as have been rarely heard in the Lower House of Parliament," pledged his hearty support to Sir Edward. The French Chamber of Deputies has gone even further. It has decided to call upon the government to invite the coöperation of the other powers, in the discussion at The Hague, of the question of simultaneous disarmament. On March 10, the International Peace Bureau, with headquarters at Berne, Switzerland, of which the United States is a member, sent out a circular letter to all the ministers of foreign powers concerning this question of the limitation of armaments as proposed in the resolution adopted by the last session of Congress. Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, the eminent French worker for international peace, paid a visit to the United States last month, and made a number of stirring public addresses. Baron de Constant is a member of the French Chamber of Deputies, an officer of the Hague Court of Arbitration and a winner of the Nobel peace prize.

and refused by the third power, certainly, I think, there would be a strong sympathy between the two powers who had made the general arbitration treaty. But that is a matter which depends upon public opinion and in which public opinion will take care of itself. . . . If an arbitration treaty is made between two great countries on the lines sketched out as possible by the President of the United States, let it be done between the two Powers concerned without *arrière pensée*, but don't let them set narrow bounds to their hopes of the beneficent results which may develop from it in the course of time—results which I think must extend far beyond the two countries originally concerned. . . . To introduce any such condition or stipulation into an arbitration treaty would impair the chances of it here or elsewhere. It might even lead other countries to suppose that the arbitration treaty between the two powers was directed against one or more of the other powers. That would completely spoil its possible effect in mitigating the general expenditures on armaments.

The Progress of "Reciprocity" at Ottawa

President Taft has declared that he does not expect the Sixty-second Congress, which he has called to meet in special session on the fourth day of the present month, to take up any important legislation except that looking toward reciprocity with Canada. For his part Premier Laurier has emphatically informed the Dominion House of Commons, that it is the fixed policy of his government to adopt the reciprocity agreement at the earliest possible moment. The debate over the agreement in the Parliament at Ottawa has been protracted. Many of the members have made speeches of a high order of statesmanship both for and against the measure. The strength of the government's position was shown on March 8. Mr. R. L. Borden, leader of the opposition, made a motion to the effect that, as American action on the agreement has been delayed, the matter should not be taken up by the Canadian Parliament "until the electors have had opportunity to pass on its merits." This motion to defer action was defeated by 42 votes, almost the entire normal government majority. Only two Liberals voted with the opposition, Messrs. Sifton and Harris, both of whom have been opposed to reciprocity from the first.

Reaffirming Loyalty to Britain

A good deal of discussion and some popular excitement was occasioned in Canada by the utterances of several American politicians regarding the possible annexation of the Dominion by the United States. On February 22, Mr. F. D. Monk, the French Nationalist leader from Quebec, introduced a resolution to "reassure the country." Since in Canada, the United States and Great Britain, some public men and a part of the press have stated that annexation is bound to follow reciprocity, it is the "emphatic determination" of the Dominion Parliament, said Mr. Monk's resolution, "to preserve intact the bonds which unite Canada to the British Empire and the full liberty of Canada to control her fiscal policy and internal autonomy." All the members of the French Nationalist group, which has been freely charged with disloyalty to Britain, enthusiastically endorsed this resolution, which was adopted unanimously. In his speech to the Commons, the Premier praised the reciprocity agreement; affirmed his loyalty to Great Britain; scouted annexation; proclaimed the development of Canada; and pled for an intelligent friendship between the farmer and manufacturer in

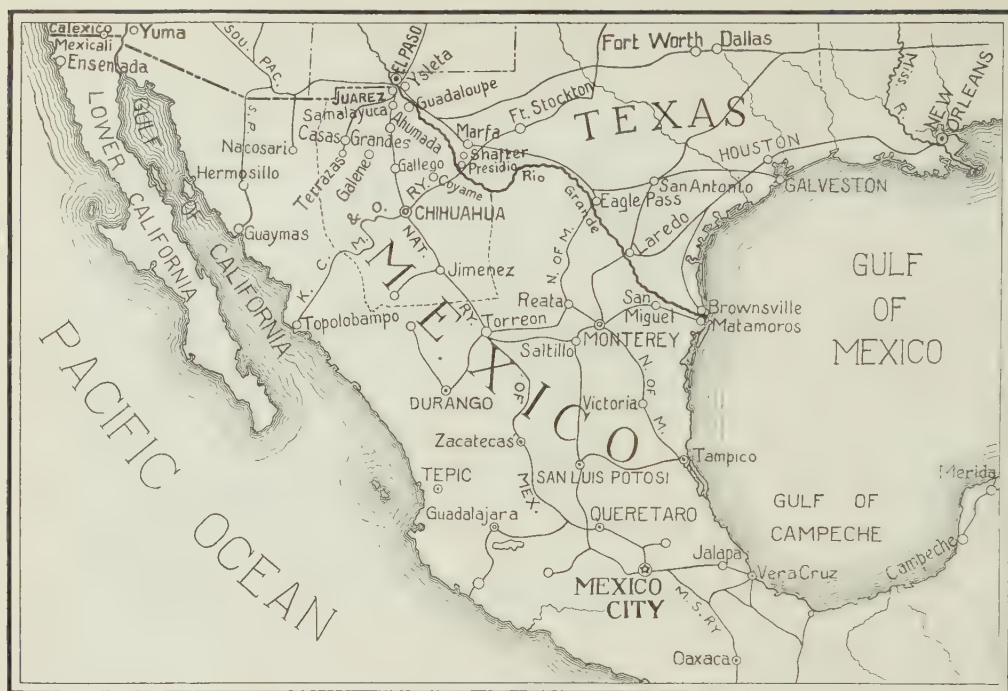
the Dominion, and between the Dominion and the United States.

The Press and the "War" in Mexico

Last month the daily press was filled with reports of the insurrection in Mexico, and of the part to be played by the United States Government and American troops in suppressing it. We read of riots, corruption, and slavery south of the Texas line, of battles between Mexican regulars and "insurrectos," of extensive campaigns in the mountainous country, of the besieging of cities, and of the proposed setting up of an independent Socialist State in Southern California. We were informed that Japan was about to seize land and establish a naval base in Mexico; that President Diaz was ill and near death and that European governments had protested to Washington against the "chaos" in Mexico. The news despatches teemed with accounts of how American soldiers of fortune, including New York roustabouts and Harvard graduates, were taking active part in the rebellion against the government at Mexico City, and of the "kidnapping" of American citizens on American soil by Mexican military police. And, finally, we learned that a large military force, more than a quarter of our entire regular army, had been sent to the Texas border, for the ostensible purpose of practising the "war game," but, it was claimed by the press, with the ulterior aim of marching into the southern republic and quelling the rebellion ourselves, if the Diaz government did not suppress it in the near future. We read statement and counter statement from Mexican officials and representatives of the insurgent Juntas in various cities of this country, as to insurgent successes and the intentions of the government. But, with it all, our newspapers gave us nothing, or comparatively nothing, about the causes of the trouble. Why are certain Mexican states in active rebellion against the central government? Why are Mexico's middle and lower classes, as well as many of her most intellectual men, waging open war against the Diaz régime, which, even its enemies admit, has wrought so much that is of permanent good for the Mexican republic?

The Achievements of Diaz

The American people know but little of what is actually taking place in the republic to the southward. They have, however, learned, during the past few years, to distrust or, at least, to discount both the rosy reports of the Mexican Government as to social and economic conditions and the gruesome tales of the opponents



MEXICO AND THE REGION OF THE INSURRECTION ALONG THE AMERICAN BORDER

of the Diaz régime concerning "barbarous" Mexico. From time to time this magazine has called attention to the solid political, economic and industrial achievements of President Diaz in modernizing his country. We have also noted the abuses that have grown up in the government consequent upon the advancing age of Diaz, and the inability of his associates to administer national affairs with his vigor and skill. A wise and benevolent despotism may be one of the best of human governments. The fatal defect is that the qualities of the benevolent despot cannot be transmitted to his successor. With the end of the despotism always comes trouble. If Diaz has anywhere shown a want of wisdom during his long "reign," it has been in his failure to prepare for a succession and to make his people ready to accept it when inevitable.

*In the
Interest of
the People*

Undoubtedly government in Mexico has not yet come to be in the sense Lincoln understood it, a government of the people nor yet one administered by the people. It is, however, speaking in broad, general terms, a government for the people. It will not do, as Mr. Creelman graphically phrases it, in his recent book on Diaz which we notice on another page this month, for any country to harken

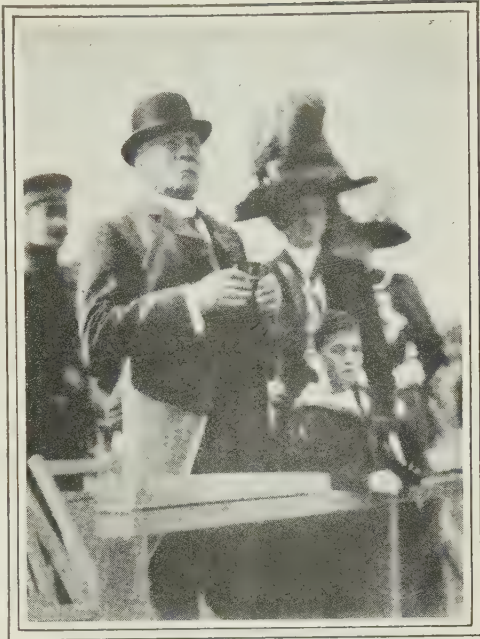
exclusively to the "epigrams that sentimental democracy screams against the hard, rough, slow work confronting organized society all over the world." It is impossible to deny the constructive work Diaz has done in elevating the masses of the Mexican people, and in advancing his country in the arts of peace and in material wealth. Mexico's credit is high, and a vast amount of foreign capital is invested in her industries. The safety of this investment is due primarily, if not entirely, to the vigor, statesmanship and efficiency of Porfirio Diaz. Don Francisco de la Barra, the Mexican Ambassador at Washington, in a frank article appearing in the *Independent*, for March 16, on present conditions in Mexico, claims that most of his fellow countrymen fully realize what they owe to Diaz. He sums up the material progress made by the republic under the Diaz régime, and divides those conducting the present insurrection into three groups:

The beguiled, who honestly have thought themselves the apostles of democracy and progress; the vanquished in the struggle of life, either through their own incapacity or through other circumstances, who aspire to figure in a new régime that can afford them a field for their activities that are not always wise; and those individuals, the dross of society, who are ready to fight for any cause by which they can profit and make use of for their own evil intentions.

The first group only, the Ambassador thinks it worth while arguing with, and to them he points out what has already been done, admonishing them to be patient.

*What Mexico
Lacks*

Judged by American ideals and standards, which are the ideals and standards of the cooler-blooded Anglo-Saxon race, nourished from its earliest infancy on free, representative institutions, there is undoubtedly much to be desired in modern Mexico. A modified system of feudalism still obtains in that republic, with peonage or industrial serfdom, for a large portion of the people. Indeed, as we pointed out last month, it has been the popular revolt, particularly in the northern states of Chihuahua and Sonora, against the monopoly of commercial and economic opportunities by the old families and the owners of the larger estates, that precipitated the present serious condition of affairs. Undoubtedly the main cause of the uprising lies in the fact that the upper and middle classes have both outgrown the system of government that has been in operation for more than a quarter of a century. The people of Mexico may be roughly divided into two classes, a small upper class com-



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PRESIDENT DIAZ AT AN AVIATION "MEET" LAST MONTH

(This photograph is pointed to by the friends of the aged President to show that he is enjoying good health)



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THE MAN OF THE HOUR IN MEXICO
(Señor Don José Yves Limantour, Minister of Finance,
Mexico's strongest man after President Díaz)

posed mainly of people of wealth, landowners who measure their estates by square miles, and a vast body of poorly paid laborers, with practically no middle class such as that which forms the great bulk of the population of the United States and the nations of Europe. In recent years an effort has been made through the opening of public lands to create a class of small land owners, but without success. A Mexican may acquire public land by settlement and cultivation and the payment of a tax, but only a comparatively few have been able to comply with the conditions. Millions of Mexican peons take no interest whatever in politics, but there are thousands of men of higher intelligence who believe that an autocratic system is employed to deprive them of their privileges as citizens. Elections, both state and national, are admittedly a farce and have been so for years.

*Oppressions of
the Governing
Class*

That the governing class has not appreciated the change of sentiment on the part of the governed is due to its ignorance, as well as to the general indisposition of mankind to give up power, or to admit that a system, in the main successful, may prove to be disastrous under changed conditions. Therefore, the system has not been changed. In Chihuahua par-

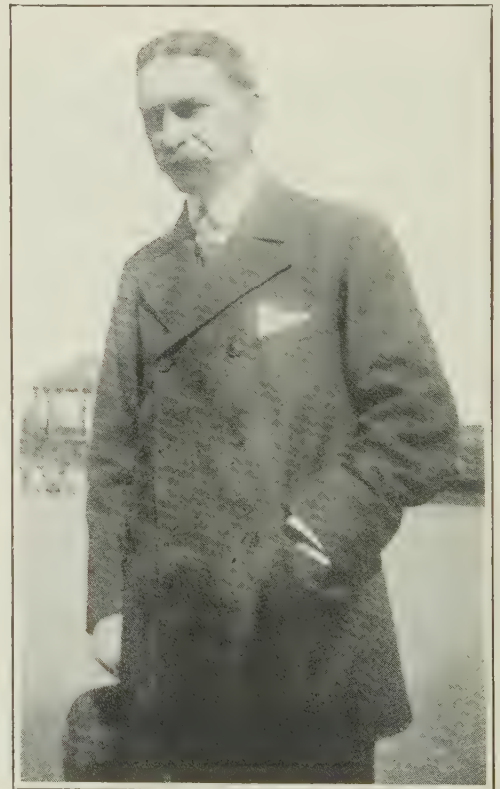


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THE MEXICAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES,
SEÑOR DON FRANCISCO DE LA BARRA

ticularly, the state government has been more extreme in its tyrannical methods, and the land-owning class more oppressive in its exactions, than in any other state. This oppression, coupled with the topography of the country, which is mountainous, only sparsely populated, and with but few railroad connections, lending itself to such a condition as now exists, has made Chihuahua the hotbed of the insurrection. Probably also the proximity of Americans and American ideas have had a larger influence in Chihuahua than they have had in other states more remote from the international boundary. There are many Americans in Chihuahua, chiefly interested in mining enterprises.

Several months ago the "new idea" of government had spread so far, and gained so many adherents, that more than one of the political and industrial leaders of the republic had urged upon President Diaz the necessity of recognizing the changed sentiment of the people, and of granting most of the popular demands for the enactment of laws which should gradually tend to equalize economic and industrial opportunities. Several weeks ago, Señor Terrazas, Governor of Chihuahua, who had been particularly obnoxious to the people, was removed. The Terrazas family has governed the state for several generations, and owns most of the territory in it. The new Governor, Señor Ahumada, is of less aristocratic origin, and more democratic and progressive in his ideas. Many reforms, national in their application, are now being considered by the central administration at Mexico City. Late last month a committee of influential agriculturists visited President Diaz. It was reported that he promised them that as soon as the present rebellion ceases, and the financial losses resultant there-



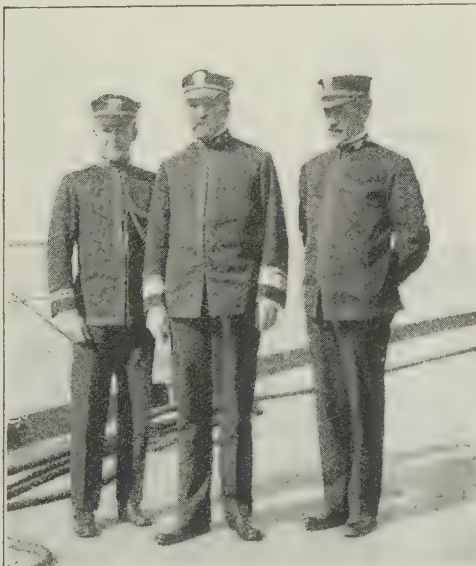
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THE AMERICAN AMBASSADOR TO MEXICO, HON.
HENRY LANE WILSON

from have been made good, the government will purchase the greater proportion of the larger estates of the country, and parcel them out among small individual owners at fair prices, permitting the payment to be made in installments, over a period of years. Such a measure, if successfully carried out, would mean the complete breakup of what is practically the feudal system in Mexico, and do away with many of the abuses of which the people now complain.

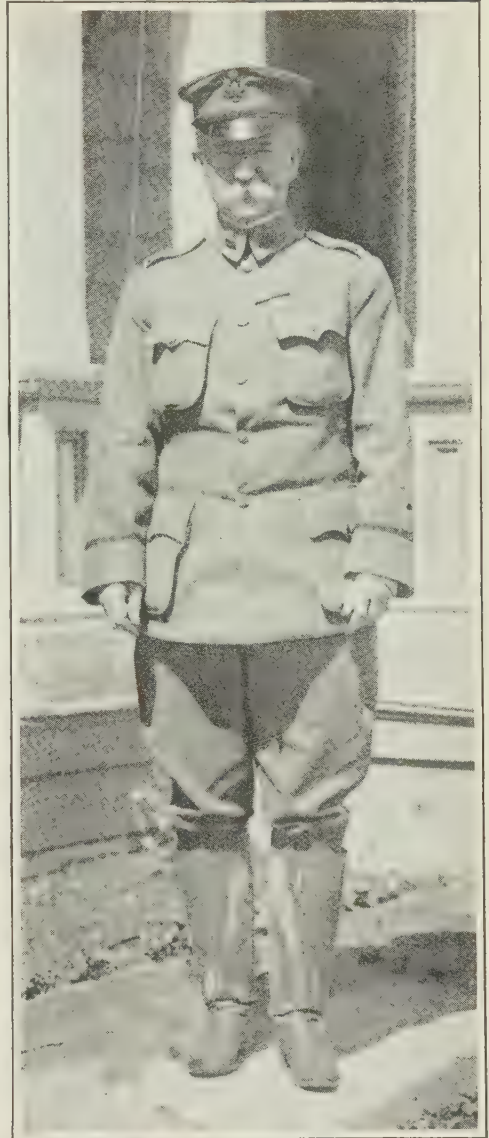
*An American
Army to
the Border*

The entire country was startled, on the morning of March 8, to read in the newspapers the announcement that orders had been issued from the War Department, for the mobilization, near our southern frontier, of a large part of the United States regular army available for active service. Troops to the number of nearly 30,000 were set in motion by these orders. They were soon concentrated at San Antonio, Texas, where a camp adapted for several months' occupation was rapidly prepared for them. Then 4000 militia officers from all parts of the country volunteered to join the forces in Texas. More than 2000 marines were ordered to Guantanamo, in Cuba, while a squadron of five fast cruisers with their auxiliaries were sent to Galveston. The order for these military movements, the most extensive ever carried on in the United States in time of peace, stated that the troops were being mobilized "for the purpose of



Photograph by the Pictorial News Company, N. Y.

REAR ADMIRAL SIDNEY A. STAUNTON
(In command of the division of the Atlantic Fleet taking part in the "War Game." Admiral Staunton in the center)



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THE AMERICAN COMMANDER ON THE MEXICAN BORDER
(Major General William H. Carter, Divisional Commander in Texas)

field instruction." In view, however, of the disturbed condition of affairs in Mexico, it was inevitable that press and people should seek for other reasons.

*The Reasons
Given
Therefor*

Two days later these reasons were admitted, in a semi-official statement published by the Associated Press correspondent accompanying President Taft on his vacation trip southward. It was admitted that the American Ambassador to Mexico, Henry Lane Wilson,

who returned to Washington early last month, had submitted a report concerning



Photograph by Harris & Ewing, Washington
 SECRETARY OF WAR DICKINSON AND GENERAL WOOD,
 AS THEY LOOKED LAST MONTH
 (The Secretary of War and the Chief of the General Staff
 were photographed during the first few days of the
 "war game" on the Mexican border)

the situation south of the boundary which was very gloomy in its tenor. It came out also that the President had received intimations of the grave condition of affairs in Mexico from special agents of the Departments of Justice and the Treasury, and had decided to act at once through the War Department. The opening sentences of the despatch indicate its general character:

The United States has determined that the revolution in the republic to the south must end. The American troops have been sent to form a solid military wall along the Rio Grande to stop filibustering and to see that there is no further smuggling of arms and men across the international boundary. It is believed that with this source of contraband supplies cut off the insurrectionary movement which has disturbed conditions generally for nearly a year without accomplishing anything like the formation of a responsible independent government, will speedily come to a close.

It was further stated that the movement would be a valuable lesson in the quick mobilization of an effective fighting force that would answer certain critics of the army.

Other
 Reasons
 Not Given

Despite the prompt, official diplomatic denials, there is every reason to believe that the presence of the United States troops in Texas, close to the Mexican border, is due to four causes, which are known to exist, however much their existence may be explained away. These are, first, the attitude of the powers of Europe, whether or not officially formulated, regarding American obligations as incurred by the Monroe Doctrine, to protect foreign interests in Latin-America; second, complaints from

the Mexican Government concerning conditions on the boundary; third, the protection of American citizens and American financial interests in Mexico in the event of serious disorder or the overthrow of the present government; fourth, the valuable opportunity to practise the "war game" on a large scale in the face of the possibilities of actual warfare. Let us consider these points in order.

A
 Delicate
 Situation

The European powers are now agreed in the contention that if the United States, because of the Monroe Doctrine, objects to European interference in the countries of the American continent, our Government must itself see that European interests and investors receive just and proper protection in these countries. The present state of mind of Europe and the United States in this matter, is set forth by Mr. Arthur W. Dunn on another page of this issue. There can be no doubt of the participation of American adventurers in the present insurrection. It is a regrettable, but perhaps inevitable fact, that fighting could not go on across the Rio Grande without making an appeal to restless spirits on this side of the border. It is a bad business, at best, for adventurers to stir up mischief in a neighbor's country. The worst part of it, however, is that, as soon as these adventurers get into difficulties, it is inevitable, though most unfortunate, that the army and navy of the United States are called upon to save them from the punishment they deserve.

American
 Citizens
 Arrested

The arrest, last month, of two American citizens, Edwin M. Blatt and Lawrence F. Converse, by the Mexican military patrol, for alleged



YOUR UNCLE SAMUEL DOES A LITTLE POLICE DUTY
 From the *Enquirer* (Philadelphia)



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TAKING ON SUPPLIES FOR THE MARINES ON THE BATTLESHIP "MONTANA"

violation of the neutrality laws, is a particularly delicate case in point. The two men and their relatives claim that this "kidnapping" occurred on American soil, and the State Department at Washington at once made formal demand on Mexico for redress. The Mexican authorities, however, insist that these men were taken while actively working with the insurgents on Mexican territory.

Here we have a direct conflict of fact. It should be noted in this connection that a considerable proportion of the border line between Texas and Mexico is still in dispute, partly owing to the shifting bed of the Rio Grande. The detention of Blatt and Converse by Mexican authorities, it is now believed, can only be settled when an agreement has been reached by the International Bound-



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THE TRADITIONAL BURDEN-BEARER OF THE ARMY, THE PACK MULE AT SAN ANTONIO



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TROOPERS OF THE FOURTH CAVALRY GETTING THEIR MOUNTS AT FORT BLISS, EL PASO

ary Commission which is considering the disputed line. Señor Limantour, Mexican Minister of Finance, ranking member of the Diaz cabinet and one of the most resourceful men of the republic, openly maintains that there are more than 600 American citizens, or those claiming American citizenship, in the ranks of the insurrectos. He claims further that had it not been for American support in men, arms and ammunition actually sent into Mexican territory, and the sympathy and "lurid writing" in the American press, there would be no insurrection in Mexico to-day.

*Foreign
Interests in
Mexico*

There are upwards of 100,000 American citizens living and doing business in the Mexican republic, and nearly a billion dollars of American money is invested in Mexico. This is about one-third of the total foreign capital in the country. The Monroe Doctrine virtually puts the United States under obligation to protect all these persons, the 150,000 foreigners as well as the 100,000 Americans, and their investments. The present demonstration will be abundant evidence that we are entirely able to perform our duty in this regard. The advantages for the troops of maneuvers in the field, under the circumstances existing at the border, have already been proven. Major General William H. Carter, an accomplished, courageous and experienced soldier, who is in active command, has an army complete in every arm of the service, including

aëroplane scouts, and this war machine has already secured much valuable experience.

*The
"War" to
Date*

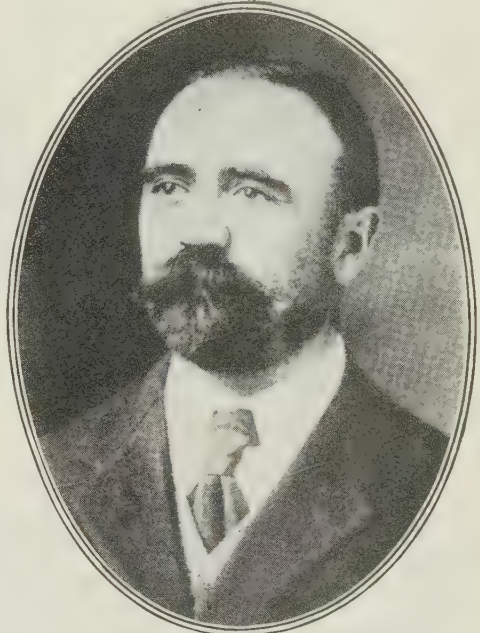
The present insurrection is not, apparently, of great proportions, so far as the number of men engaged is concerned. Nor is General Madero, or any of his leaders, likely to attempt to meet any large body of government forces in the open field. The only engagement up to the middle of last month approaching the proportions of a real battle, was fought on March 9, at a small town called Casas Grandes, with an uncertain result, probably in favor of the insurgents. Although the insurrection has been brewing for some time the actual clashes between the government troops and the insurgents began only early in the winter, in the State of Chihuahua, which, as we have already pointed out, is topographically favorable to the carrying on of guerilla warfare. At present, if we are to believe the reports issued by the insurgent Juntas, in this country, the disaffection has spread to 21 out of 28 states of the republic. In the northern states, in the immediate vicinity of the United States border, the insurgents have cut the railways and are carrying on a series of skirmishes and attacks on the smaller towns. They are claiming to have 10,000 men in the field. In the neighboring states of Sonora, Coahuila and Durango the revolt appears to be spreading, and the Federal forces have been defeated in Yucatan. In Baja (Lower) Cali-

fornia, the insurgents have been strong enough to dictate their wishes to the government and to seriously discuss the formation of a Socialist commonwealth under the protection of the United States.

*Is
Diaz
Failing?*

Many reports of the failing health of President Diaz have been circulated and vigorously denied by Mexican officials. Diaz, however, is over 80 years of age, and, despite his splendid natural constitution and generally abstemious life, is gradually failing. That the central government realizes the gravity of the situation is shown by the fact that a large proportion of the regular army of the republic and the pick of the excellent police known as rurales has been concentrated in the Federal district surrounding Mexico City. The necessity for a strong military force at the capital in the event of Diaz's death, or the overthrow of the government, is apparently regarded as more important than the despatch of large Federal forces to the scene of the fighting in the far north. As a further precaution President Diaz late last month asked the Permanent Commission of the Mexican Congress, a body with power to act when Congress is not in session, for permission to suspend the constitutional guaranty of trial, in the case of all persons who "interfere with railway or tele-

graphic communication, or commit outrages on the property and persons of loyal and law-abiding citizens." This request was granted with the result that the republic is now virtually under martial law.



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GENERAL FRANCISCO MADERO, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE INSURRECTO FORCES



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A TROOPER PATROLLING THE BORDER

(One of the American soldier boys who are guarding our southern boundary. The Rio Grande in the distance)

The Leadership of Limantour The strongest and ablest of living Mexican statesmen, after the President himself, Señor Don José Yves Limantour, Diaz's Minister of Finance, returned last month from France, where he had succeeded in disposing of some Mexican securities. While in New York, Señor Limantour talked freely upon the subject of the insurrection and the ability of his government to suppress it. His expressed opinion, like that of other Mexicans here and at home, was, in substance, that our Government's course in the affair has been legitimate and friendly. The Mexican people, he maintains, will believe President Taft's words and that he represented the intentions of our Government, when he officially assured President Diaz that the concentration of American troops in Texas, along the Mexican border, had not, for its object, the occupation of Mexican territory. Señor Limantour, in a statement issued simultaneously with a similar one made by Señor de la Barra, the Mexican Ambassador, protested against intervention or invasion for any purpose. These



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THE AEROPLANE SCOUT ON THE MEXICAN BORDER. THE ARMY WRIGHT MACHINE



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ARTILLERY ON THE MARCH NEAR SAN ANTONIO



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A GROUP OF SOLDIER BOYS (15TH REGULARS) GOING TO CAMP AT SAN ANTONIO



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FATIGUE DUTY AT SAN ANTONIO



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MARCHING TO CAMP NEAR FORT SAM HOUSTON



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DETRAINING THE TROOPS AT FORT BLISS, NEAR EL PASO

statesmen maintain that any intervention would not be tolerated, and, if attempted, would have the effect of uniting the government supporters and the insurgents in one patriotic army of defense. Meanwhile the Tokyo Foreign Office, through the Japanese Ambassador at Washington, has seen fit to make public denial of the report that Japan has made, or contemplates making, any treaty arrangement looking toward the establishment of a Japanese naval base upon Mexican soil.

*Cabinet
Changes
Likely*

It was generally believed, last month, that upon the return of Señor Limantour to Mexico City, there would be several important changes made in the Mexican cabinet. There is much opposition among the insurgents and the more progressive element to Enrique Creel, the present Minister of Foreign Affairs, whose family is connected with the reactionary elements in the State of Chihuahua. There has been also much opposition to Vice-President Corral, the legal successor of Díaz, should the latter die before another general election. In Mexico the Vice-President occupies a position of much more importance than with us. The Mexican Vice-President is usually a man of power and wide influence. It is believed that Señores Corral and Creel will resign, and that Señor Limantour will himself accept the position of Foreign Minister, and thus become virtual successor of Díaz. There is an increasing demand among the disaffected for the resignation of the aged president and a new election. The dismissal of the governors of many of the provinces is also demanded by the insurgents as the beginning of a series of radical reforms that will, first of all, insure free and

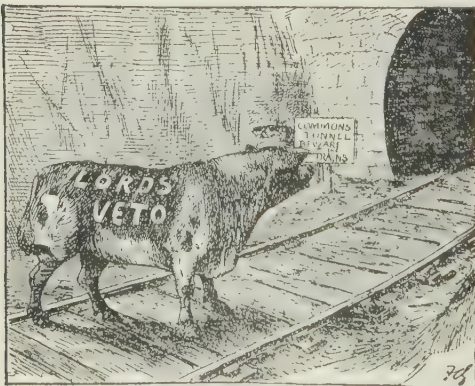
honest elections. Pending the granting of these reforms, the leaders insist that they will remain under arms.

*Progress
of the
Veto Bill*

When the British Parliament assembled, on February 6, for its regular winter session, Premier Asquith announced that the government would take all the time of the House before Easter, in order to pass the three readings of the veto bill. On March 2 the second reading of the bill was passed by the Commons by a majority of 125. Mr. Austen Chamberlain's amendment asserting that the House, while demanding reform of the upper chamber, "declines to proceed with a measure which places all effective legislative authority in the hands of a single chamber, and offers no safeguard against the passage into law of grave changes without the consent and contrary to the will of the people," was rejected by a majority of 121. The bill was then referred to the committee of the whole, which means the beginning of the real work on the part of the opposition. The Lords meanwhile have abandoned their original scheme of reforming themselves, although, on February 22, Lord Lansdowne, leader of the opposition among the Peers, gave notice that he would soon introduce a new bill to amend the constitution of the upper chamber.

*The Coming
Imperial
Conference*

Immediately preceding the coronation of King George, on June 16, the Imperial Conference of all the self-governing dominions of the British Empire will meet in London. Canada will be represented by Premier Laurier, and probably also by Minister Fielding and the Minister of Defense. Hon. Andrew Fisher, Prime Minister of Australia, with the Minister of External Affairs and Defense will represent Australia. Right Hon. Louis Botha, Prime Minister of South Africa, will speak for that dominion, and will be accompanied by Minister Hull of Finance, and Minister Malan of Education. New Zealand will send her Premier, the Right Hon. Sir J. G. Ward, and her Attorney-General and Colonial Secretary. It is expected that at the session, which begins on May 20, important phases of the general subject of imperial defense will be thoroughly discussed, as well as the effect on trade with the mother country of the adoption of such commercial agreements as reciprocity with the United States, which Sir Wilfrid Laurier hopes will by that time have been adopted by Canada, besides questions of posts, telegraphs, copyrights, emigration and



THE LORDS' VETO BULL: "WAS THAT A WHISTLE I HEARD?"

From the *Westminster Gazette* (London)



ANTOINE ERNEST MONIS,
(Premier)

THÉOPHILE DELCASSÉ,
(Marine)

JEAN CRUPPI,
(Foreign Affairs)

LEADERS OF THE NEW FRENCH MINISTRY

labor exchanges. No suggestions for consideration have been made by Canada. New Zealand, however, proposes a discussion of the formation of an Imperial Council of State with representatives of all constituent parts of the Empire, and the reorganization of the Colonial Office. Australia recommends that "every effort should be made to bring about complete coöperation in commercial relations." South Africa proposes that all matters relating to the self-governing dominions be taken from the jurisdiction of the Colonial Office and placed under the exclusive control of the Prime Minister.

*A New
Ministry
In France*

When the public announcement was made by Premier Briand at the opening of the French Parliament last month, as to the government's policy with regard to the labor situation, a vote of confidence was taken, in response to the demand made by the radical, anti-clerical members, who claimed that the Briand ministry had been lax in its enforcement of the separation law. The government majority in this vote was only 16. M. Briand at once sent to President Fallières his resignation and that of all the members of his cabinet. After some deliberation, the President called upon Senator Monis to form a new cabinet, with the following result: Premier and Minister of Interior, Antoine Ernest Monis; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Jean Cruppi; Minister of

War, Henri Maurice Berteaux; Minister of Marine, Théophile Delcassé; Minister of Finance, Joseph Caillaux; Minister of Public Instruction, Jules Stegg; Minister of Public Works, Charles Dumont; Minister of Colonies, Adolphe Messimy; Minister of Labor, Paul Boncour; Minister of Justice, Antoine Perrier; Minister of Agriculture, Jules Pams; Minister of Commerce, Louis Massé.

*Premier
Monis a
Moderate*

Senator Monis, the new Premier, is 65 years old. He was Minister of Justice in the Waldeck-Rousseau cabinet. He was a member of the Chamber of Deputies from 1885 to 1901, when he was elected to the Senate, serving in that body ever since. He is a radical Republican, a man of pronounced ability, but not of commanding personality. It is believed his policy will not differ very much from that of Briand, and it is possible that he may not secure any better support in the Chamber, even though he is much more acceptable than was his predecessor to the socialistic wing led by Jaures and Hervé. Upon the reading of his declaration of principles in the Chamber, on March 6, a vote of confidence in the government was carried by a majority of 165. There are four radical socialists in the cabinet: M. Berteaux, Minister of War; M. Massé, Minister of Commerce; M. Stegg, Minister of Public Instruction; and M. Messimy, Minister of the Colonies. M. Berteaux was

Minister of War in 1904. It was his attack upon the government that led to the retirement of Briand.

*The Leading
Ministers*

The new Foreign Minister, M. Cruppi, formerly held the portfolio of Commerce. He is an expert on tariff questions. The presence in the cabinet of M. Louis Malvy, who is under-secretary of Justice and Worship, is regarded as an indication that the religious congregation laws of 1901 and 1904 will be more drastically applied in the future than has been done during the months of M. Briand's moderate and conciliatory régime. The appointment to the position of Minister of Labor of M. Boncour has aroused some apprehension among conservative Frenchmen. M. Boncour is an extreme, even violent advocate, of what is known in France as "obligatory syndicalism" as a panacea for all the labor and socialistic grievances of the republic. Undoubtedly the most conspicuous member of the new cabinet is M. Théophile Delcassé. It was his brilliant foreign policy, in 1905, which led to the entente with England, and came very near to bringing on a war with Germany. In the new ministry, M. Delcassé holds the position of Minister of Marine, an assignment probably intended to avoid irritating Germany, although he will be the mainspring of the ministry. M. Caillaux, the new Minister of Finance, held that post under the premier-ships of Waldeck-Rousseau and Clemenceau. He will be remembered in this country as the instigator of the movement which, several years ago, prevented the listing of the United States steel stock on the Paris Bourse by a syndicate of French bankers. His income tax bill was passed by the Chamber of Deputies, after much opposition, in the spring of 1908. It has still to run the gantlet of the Senate. The only important change of policy announced by the new government during the first few weeks of its existence, is the reinstatement of the railway employees concerned in the recent strikes.

*Greenwich
Time for
France*

The adoption of standard time by France, reported last month, now puts practically all of the civilized nations of the world on a uniform basis as regards time reckoning, and makes possible the immediate and direct comparison of events happening simultaneously on the earth's surface. The use of the meridian passing through Greenwich, England, as a point of departure in the determination of

geographical positions and in time computations had extended so universally that France remained the only important country that preserved its capital as the zero meridian of longitude. This action was largely one of patriotism and natural pride rather than of sound scientific reasoning, for no nation has been more alive to the value of international coöperation in science than France. During the last quarter century the general adoption of time zones, each covering 15 degrees of longitude and making an exact difference in time of one hour between adjoining zones, has depended, of course, upon a common basis. This was taken as Greenwich, largely on account of the extensive astronomical and navigation tables prepared at this great British observatory. All of this enabled the idea of standard time to spread widely, and Europe, Asia and America are now divided into zones between which the difference is an even hour. Furthermore, for the International Map of the World, planned at the international conference held in 1909, it was determined also to employ the meridian of Greenwich, and the great international atlas of the world which the various nations are now uniting to prepare is arranged on that basis. In changing the time of France from Paris to Greenwich, it was necessary to stop all the clocks for 9 minutes and 21 seconds. This was done at midnight on March 10, in pursuance of a law passed by the French Parliament. Time tables were not changed, but railway trains were held up for the interval while the clocks were stationary. The gain to science and commerce, not to mention universal convenience, by this broad-minded action on the part of France, cannot be overestimated.

*Steady
Advance
in China*

According to an imperial edict issued from Peking in the latter part of January, the Chinese Empire will have a responsible cabinet some time during the present year. The present Grand Council is to be converted into an Advisory Council; a national budget is to be worked out; and regulations for popular Parliamentary elections are to be formulated. The Parliament itself is promised for the summer of 1913. In commenting upon the work done by the first Chinese National Assembly which closed its first session several weeks ago the *National Review* of Shanghai declares:

The government of this great Empire has ceased to be patriarchal and benevolently despotic and has frankly become representative, essentially so in spite of the fact that the powers of the Assembly have been deliberative and consultative without any legislative character.

The members of the Assembly, this journal believes, have shown that they possess almost all the qualities which make Parliamentary government a success. They have shown a "real capacity for fixing on vital things"—finance, official maladministration, economic development, frontier defense—and insisting that these things should be made the first care of the government. "If the representatives of the people have realized these things now it will not be long before the people at large are capable of some measure of responsibility."

*Foreign
Aggression and
the Plague*

The authorities at Peking will have need of all their astuteness if they are to preserve the new China for her people from the covert encroachments of Japan on one side, and of Russia on the other. A new chapter in the history of Russo-Chinese relations was opened, some weeks ago, when the Czar's Minister at Peking demanded that China recognize Russia's right to various commercial and diplomatic privileges in the province of Ili. This action is the outcome of a long series of negotiations based on the treaty of 1881, which China intended to denounce this year. We shall have something more to say of this Russo-Chinese disagreement next month, when the official attitude of China and Japan is known. Meanwhile, harrowing tales of misery and the distress of the famine and plague victims continue to come from the affected area in Manchuria. It is true that the authorities at the capital have now apparently been aroused to the danger, and have begun fighting the plague with sanitary measures. According to a recent report made by the Peking correspondent of the *London Times*, up to March 6 more than 65,000 deaths from the plague had occurred, and 10,000 from famine. On another page this month we describe the situation and show the extent of the territory over which the terrible scourge has already spread.

*The New
Treaty with
Japan*

The significant feature of the new Japanese treaty, which was ratified by the Senate on February 24, is its omission of any explicit stipulation concerning the regulation of the migration of the people of one country to the other. As

part of this treaty of commerce and navigation, although drawn up separately, the representatives of the two governments also agreed upon the protocol of a provisional tariff arrangement, and the following declaration on the subject of immigration made by the Japanese Government:

In proceeding this day to the signature of the treaty of commerce and navigation between Japan and the United States the undersigned, the Japanese Ambassador in Washington, duly authorized by his government, has the honor to declare that the imperial Japanese Government are fully prepared to maintain with equal effectiveness the limitation and control which they have for the past three years exercised in regulation of the emigration of laborers to the United States. UCHIDA.

*Concessions
by
Both Sides*

Some of the Western Senators had expressed a desire to have the treaty modified so as to make more specific the regulations concerning the coming of Japanese laborers. The President and Secretary Knox, however, finally convinced them that the "gentlemen's agreement" set forth in the diplomatic note already quoted, sufficiently protects us in the exercise of our right to regulate Japanese immigration. As an additional safeguard, the new treaty contains the provision that either party may denounce it on six months' notice, which may be given at any time. A number of concessions were made on both sides. The United States consented to drop from the existing treaty, signed in 1894, the immigration clause which was obnoxious to Japan. Our State Department also agreed, at the request of the government at Tokyo, to terminate the existing treaty in July next, or one year earlier than its date of expiration. Most of Japan's treaties with the other countries of the world expire during the next summer, and she desires to renew them all simultaneously. In return for these concessions by the United States, Japan has given absolute assurance that the present policy of declining to issue passports to Japanese laborers who wish to come to this country, which she has faithfully and consistently maintained for the past three years, will be continued in force. Japan further agrees to continue to grant to the United States the most favored nation treatment in tariff matters, pending the negotiation of a special agreement.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From February 18 to March 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

February 20.—In the House, a three-days filibuster over the Omnibus Claims bill comes to an end and the bill is passed.

February 22.—In the Senate, Mr. Lorimer (Rep. Ill.) defends the validity of his election. . . . The House passes the Naval appropriation bill (\$113,000,000) and the Fortifications and Diplomatic and Consular appropriation bills.

February 23.—The Senate calls upon the President for statistical information bearing on Canadian reciprocity. . . . The House passes the Moon bill relating to the federal judiciary.

February 24.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies the treaty with Japan.

February 25.—The House passes the Sundry Civil appropriation bill, carrying \$3,000,000 for beginning the work of fortifying the Panama Canal.

February 27.—The Senate passes the "spy" bill, aimed to prevent disclosures of national defense secrets.

February 28.—In the Senate, the resolution providing for the election of Senators by direct popular vote fails to obtain a two-thirds majority.

March 1.—The Senate, by vote of 46 to 40, refuses to unseat Mr. Lorimer (Rep., Ill.) . . . The House approves the New Mexico constitution.

March 2.—The Senate passes the Pension and Diplomatic and Consular appropriation bills.

March 3.—The Senate passes the Naval, Sundry Civil, and Post-Office appropriation bills, the last providing for investigating the cost of carrying second-class mail. . . . The House passes the bill retiring Robert E. Peary with the rank of Rear-Admiral and extending to him the thanks of Congress.

March 4.—The Senate passes the Tariff Board bill. . . . The Sixty-first Congress comes to an end without final consideration of the Canadian reciprocity agreement, the Permanent Tariff Commission bill, the Reapportionment bill, and the resolution to admit Arizona and New Mexico to statehood.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

February 21.—The President sends to the Senate a new treaty with Japan, in which the restrictions on immigration contained in the present treaty are eliminated. . . . Governor O'Neal, of Alabama, signs the Parks local-option bill. . . . Governor Carroll, of Iowa, vetoes the primary bill modeled on the Oregon plan.

February 23.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders the railroads of the East and the Middle West to cancel their proposed increases in freight rates. . . . The Iowa House rejects the joint resolution providing for woman suffrage.

February 24.—The California Senate adopts a constitutional amendment providing for the recall of elective officials, including the judiciary.

February 26.—Edward M. Shepard (Dem.) withdraws from the New York Senatorial contest.

February 28.—The first direct primaries ever held in Chicago result in the nomination of Charles E. Merriam (Rep.) and Carter H. Harrison (Dem.) for the mayoralty (see page 466). . . . The "grandfather clause" amendment to the Arkansas constitution is passed by the Senate and sent to the Governor for approval.

March 1.—Congressman Henry S. Boutell is nominated by the President as minister to Portugal.

March 2.—The Montana Legislature, after a deadlock lasting two months, elects Henry L. Myers (Dem.) as United States Senator to succeed Thomas H. Carter. . . . Governor Plaisted, of Maine, signs the resolution passed by the Legislature submitting to the people the question of repealing the 'liquor-prohibition' amendment. . . . The New Hampshire Senate rejects the resolution passed by the House ratifying the income-tax amendment.

March 3.—Governor Dix, of New York, advises the Democratic members of the Legislature that as the election of William F. Sheehan has proved impossible they should vote for some one else. . . . The Government's suit to dissolve the so-called Electrical Trust is begun in the United States court at Cleveland.

March 4.—President Taft calls the Sixty-second Congress to meet in special session on April 4 and consider the Canadian reciprocity agreement.

March 5.—Charles D. Hilles is appointed Secretary to the President.

March 7.—Richard A. Ballinger resigns as Secretary of the Interior and Walter L. Fisher, of Chicago, is appointed to succeed him. . . . Twenty thousand American troops and fifteen war vessels are ordered to points near the Mexican border. . . . The Arkansas Senate defeats the resolution passed by the House ratifying the income-tax amendment; the Missouri Senate ratifies the amendment.

March 11.—Major-General Carter arrives at San Antonio and assumes command of the troops.

March 13.—The United States Supreme Court affirms the constitutionality of the corporation tax.

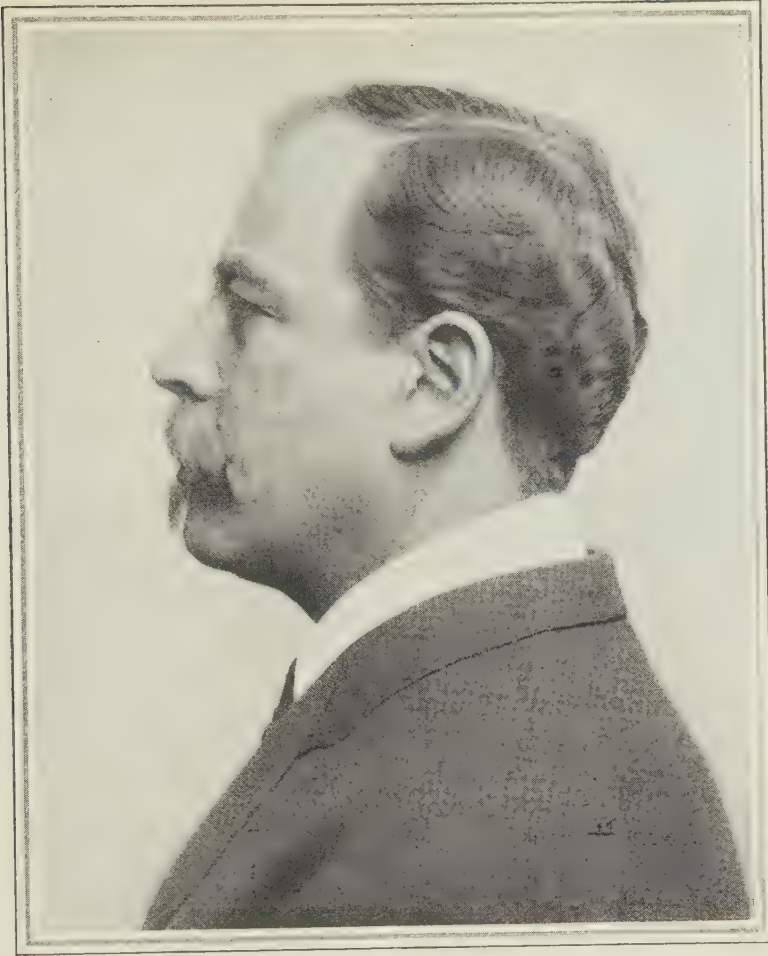
March 14.—Walter L. Fisher takes the oath as Secretary of the Interior. . . . Governor Johnson, of California, signs the bill providing an initiative, referendum, and recall for all municipalities. . . . The Nevada Senate adopts a measure submitting to the people the question of woman suffrage.

March 20.—The New Jersey Senate votes against the income-tax amendment. . . . Governor Johnson, of California, signs the Australian Ballot bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

February 20.—The Chinese Government takes the first active measures to suppress the plague, ordering that the villages burn their dead.

February 21.—Premier Asquith explains in the British House of Commons the bill abolishing the veto power of the Lords. . . . The Irish Parliamentary party decides to take no part in the coronation ceremonies of King George. . . . Tribesmen in Yemen, Arabia, capture a Turkish convoy, fifty men being killed in the fighting.



JOHN M. CARRÈRE, THE ARCHITECT

(Mr. Carrère, who was one of the most distinguished men of his profession in America, had been especially interested in municipal architecture. In association with Mr. Thomas Hastings, he had designed many important public buildings. His death on March 1 was the result of an automobile accident in New York)

February 22.—The House of Commons passes the Veto bill on its first reading. . . . The Canadian Parliament formally declares political loyalty to Great Britain in answer to allegations that reciprocity with the United States will result in annexation.

February 23.—The governor of the province of Tchernigov, Little Russia, expels more than 200 Jewish families, marching them through heavy snow.

February 24.—Premier Briand and his cabinet are severely arraigned by the Radical Socialists in the French Chamber of Deputies.

February 26.—The Costa Rican Congress approves a plan to refund the foreign debt of \$10,000,000.

February 27.—Aristide Briand tenders to President Fallières of France the resignations of himself and his cabinet.

February 28.—Antoine Emmanuel Ernest Monis, a Radical Republican Senator, accepts the in-

vitiation of President Fallières to form a ministry. . . . Clifford Sifton, chairman of the Conservation Commission and a member of the Canadian Parliament, vigorously attacks the reciprocity agreement with the United States.

March 1.—José Battle y Ordóñez is elected President of Uruguay.

March 2.—In the Canadian House of Commons, Mr. German (Liberal) makes a strong plea against reciprocity. . . . The Veto bill is passed by a majority of 125 on its second reading in the House of Commons. . . . Manuel E. Arango is inaugurated President of Salvador.

March 4.—The Honduran Congress selects Francisco Beltrán as provisional President to serve until a successor to the deposed President Davila can be elected. . . . The German Government announces that the rebellion in the Caroline Islands has been put down.

March 5.—The Mexican insurgents are reported to be in control of the railroads entering Chihuahua.

March 6.—The Mexican revolutionists are badly repulsed at Asas Grandes, thirty-six Americans being among the captured. . . . Premier Monis reads in the French Chamber the new ministry's declaration of policy; a vote of confidence is carried by 309 to 134.

March 7.—Prime Minister Laurier argues in the Canadian House of Commons in favor of the reciprocity agreement with the United States.

March 8.—A motion in the Canadian House to delay action on the reciprocity agreement because of its failure to pass the United States Congress is defeated.

March 9.—The British naval estimates show an increase over the previous year of \$19,000,000.

March 10.—The Spanish Premier announces that, further negotiations with the Vatican being impossible, the Government's Religious Associations bill will soon be introduced in the Chamber. . . . The elections for the new Portuguese assembly are set for April 30. . . . Martial law is declared in Portugal as the result of a rebellion against the régime of President Jara.

March 11.—The Mexican Government suspends constitutional guaranties, creating a mild form of martial law. . . . The trial of thirty-six Camorristas on a charge of murder is begun at Viterbo, Italy.

March 12.—A Mexican insurgent force of 500 men, under General Blanco, is decisively defeated by a smaller number of Federal troops near Agua Prieta.

March 18.—The Italian coalition ministry under Premier Luzatti resigns owing to a disagreement over electoral reforms.

March 20.—M. Stolypin, the Russian Prime Minister, resigns.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

February 18.—Manuel Bonilla, leader of the Honduran revolutionists, and Lee Christmas, his aide, are indicted in New Orleans for their connection with the *Hornet* filibustering expedition.

February 19.—Japan denounces the existing trade treaty with Canada.

February 21.—The United States warns Hayti to stop the wholesale execution of revolutionary prisoners.

February 23.—The French Chamber of Deputies adopts a motion inviting cooperation from the powers to secure the discussion at The Hague of the question of simultaneous disarmament.

February 24.—The new treaty with Japan is ratified by the United States Senate.

March 8.—President Taft assures President Diaz that the concentration of troops along the Mexican border has not for its object the occupation of Mexican territory. . . . The International Peace Bureau, at Berne, Switzerland, sends a circular letter to the powers urging them to assist the United States in the movement for the limitation of armaments.

March 13.—Sir Edward Grey, the British foreign secretary, in the course of a debate on the naval estimates in the House of Commons, praises President Taft's suggestion for an Anglo-American treaty providing for the settlement by arbitration of all disputes.

March 14.—The Russian minister to Peking presents an ultimatum to the Chinese Foreign Board, stating that an unfriendly attitude is shown in the

recent reply of China concerning restriction of Russian trade.

March 15.—The German Government, in a semi-official reply to the speech of Sir Edward Grey, states that Germany is ready to join in any agreement looking toward international arbitration of all disputes.

March 16.—Sir Edward Grey's endorsement of the views of President Taft regarding international arbitration is seconded by Mr. Balfour, leader of the Opposition in the British House.

March 19.—China replies in a conciliatory spirit to Russia's recent demands.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

February 21.—The annual carnival at Manila is opened; J. C. Mars makes the first aeroplane flight in the Orient.

February 22.—On a non-stop run from Hampton Roads to Rio de Janeiro, the battleship *Delaware* averaged 13½ knots. . . . The German census shows a population of 64,896,881, a gain of 7 per cent. in five years.

February 23.—The entire population of a village near Harbin succumbs to the plague.

February 24.—Gen. T. Coleman du Pont offers to give to the State of Delaware a highway 103 miles long, to cost \$1,500,000.

February 25.—Three hundred native dwellings in Manila are destroyed by fire.

February 26.—The will of M. Loutrefil, the banker, leaves \$700,000 to the French Academy of Sciences and \$500,000 to the University of Paris.

March 2.—It is estimated by Chinese officials that the deaths from the pneumonic plague average 200 daily.

March 3.—A United States army biplane, in service near the Mexican border, carries Aviator Parmalee and Lieutenant Foulis from Laredo to Eagle Pass, Tex. (116 miles), in two hours and seven minutes. . . . Governor Dix appoints a commission to study the docking facilities of New York City to provide accommodation for larger vessels.

March 4.—The fiftieth anniversary of the decree which emancipated 23,000,000 serfs is celebrated throughout Russia.

March 5.—Lieutenant Bague, a French army aviator, flies over the Mediterranean from Antibes, France, to the island of Gorgona, off the Italian coast (125 miles). . . . Fire in a moving-picture theater at Bologoe, Russia, results in the death of 120 persons, mostly children.

March 7.—Eugene Renaux flies with a passenger from a point near Paris to the Puy de Dome (4500 feet high), a distance of 260 miles, in five hours and eight minutes. . . . Abraham Ruef, the convicted "boss" of San Francisco, begins a fourteen-year term in the State penitentiary.

March 9.—A powder explosion at the works of the Laffin Rand Powder Company at Pleasant Prairie, Wis., demolishes the entire hamlet; forty lives are believed to have been lost.

March 12.—A severe earthquake causes a portion of the crater of Vesuvius to fall.

March 13.—An examination into the affairs of the Carnegie Trust Company, of New York City, is begun by the grand jury.

March 18.—The Roosevelt storage dam in Arizona, the second largest in the world, is formally opened by ex-President Roosevelt.

OBITUARY

February 17.—William Payne Lord, formerly Governor of Oregon, 72.

February 18.—Rev. Amory Howe Bradford, D.D., a prominent New Jersey clergyman and writer, 64.

February 19.—Brig.-Gen. George D. Scott, a prominent officer in the National Guard of New York, 79. . . . Jules Lejeune, formerly a member of the Belgian cabinet.

February 20.—Congressman Amos L. Allen, of Maine, 73.

February 22.—William Lewis Cabell, a lieutenant-general in the Confederate army, 84.

February 23.—Gen. Jean Jules Brun, French Minister of War, 61. . . . Quannah Parker, chief of the Comanche Indians, 67. . . . Dr. Aloysius O. J. Kelly, a widely known diagnostician of Philadelphia, 41.

February 25.—Friedrich Spielhagen, the German novelist, 82. . . . Fritz von Uhde, the German historical and genre painter, 63. . . . Henry Hartley Fowler, Lord Wolverhampton, a member of many British cabinets, 81.

February 26.—Desiderius, Baron Banffy, formerly Premier of Hungary. . . . Sam Walter Foss, of Somerville, Mass., a prominent poet and librarian, 53.

February 27.—John Lee Carroll, ex-Governor of Maryland, 80. . . . Gen. W. F. Melbourne, a veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 82. . . . Henry Carst, formerly president of Otterbein University (Ohio), 75.

February 28.—Josiah C. Reiff, an old-time railroad financier of New York, 73.

March 1.—John M. Carrère, the noted architect, 52. . . . Admiral Sir Assheton Gore Curzon-Howe, of the British navy, 60.

March 2.—Dr. Walter Remsen Brinckerhoff, an authority on leprosy, 37. . . . Prof. Jacobus Henricus van't Hoff, the noted Dutch chemist, 59.

March 3.—Judge Samuel D. Schmucker, of the Maryland Court of Appeals, 67.

March 6.—Antonio Fogazzaro, the Italian novelist, 68. . . . Judge Francis Cabot Lowell, of the United States Circuit Court, 56. . . . Charles Brown Lore, formerly chief justice of the Delaware Supreme Court, 79. . . . Leander Howard Crall, a well-known newspaper proprietor of the Middle West, 75.

March 7.—Rear-Adm. John C. Fremont, U. S. N., 61.

March 9.—Ex-Congressman LeGage Pratt, of New Jersey, 57.

March 10.—Ex-Congressman Marcus C. L. Kline, of Pennsylvania, 66. . . . Henry Augustus Brudenell-Bruce, Marquis of Ailesbury, 68.

March 11.—Rt. Rev. John Anthony Forest, Bishop of the Roman Catholic Diocese of San Antonio, 73. . . . Rev. Dr. Charles Joseph Little, president of the Garrett Biblical Institute of Northwestern University, 70. . . . David Banks, of New York, a well-known law publisher, 83.



THE LATE DR. WALTER REMSEN BRINCKERHOFF

(First director of the leprosy investigation station of the U. S. Marine Hospital Service at Hawaii. Dr. Brinckerhoff was also a leading authority on smallpox. At the time of his death, on March 2, he was assistant professor of pathology at the Harvard Medical School)

March 12.—Curtis Guild, Sr., of Boston, formerly a prominent journalist, 84. . . . Augusto Pierantoni, the noted Italian authority on international law, 70.

March 13.—Rev. Francis Xavier Brady, president of Loyola College (Baltimore), 51. . . . Dr. Henry Pickering Bowditch, a well-known physiologist, 71.

March 15.—Ex-Governor William Dunnington Bloxham, of Florida, 76.

March 16.—Frank Work, formerly a well-known New York financier and turfman, 92. . . . Ferdinand J. Rochow, of New York, an inventor of many labor-saving machines, 73. . . . Mrs. Sarah A. Underwood, an advocate of equal suffrage, 72.

March 17.—John B. McDonald, the New York contractor, builder of the Subway, 66. . . . Charles E. Mitchell, formerly Commissioner of Patents, 73. . . . Ex-Congressman Adin Ballou Capron, of Rhode Island, 70. . . . Robert Stuart Davis, formerly a prominent Philadelphia newspaper publisher, 73. . . . Friedrich Haase, the German character actor, 84.

March 18.—David H. Moffat, the Colorado capitalist, 71. . . . Miss Anna Callender Brackett, of New York, a noted educator and writer on educational topics, 64.

March 19.—Ernest Crofts, the British painter of war scenes, 64.

March 20.—Dr. James Theodore Holly, a negro bishop of the American Episcopal Church in Hayti, 78.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH

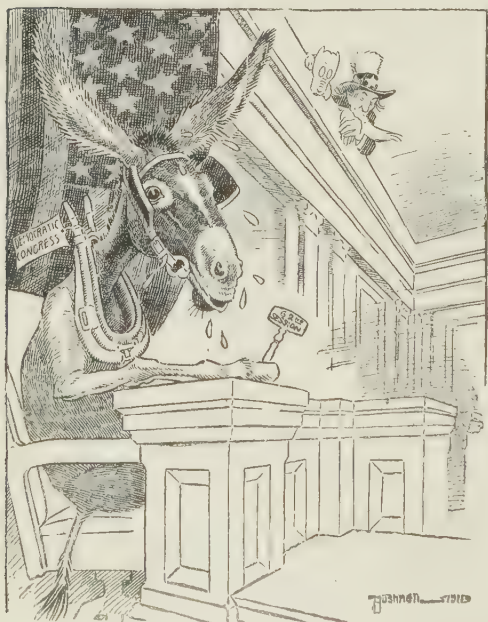
This past month the cartoons have been bristling with bayonets, apropos of the mobilization of our troops on the Mexican border. Not since the Spanish War has Uncle Sam been pictured in so warlike a guise. None of the cartoons, however, shows him as expecting or desiring to take a hand in the trouble across the line, but simply as standing by good-naturedly to see that the rules are not transgressed.

The extra session of the Sixty-second Congress, called by President Taft for April 4, and the question of Canadian reciprocity, have also provoked a great many clever cartoons, only a few of which we are able to reproduce in these pages.



UNCLE SAM: "DON'T WORRY, GENTLEMEN, I'LL DO ALL THE INTERVENING NECESSARY TO PROTECT YOUR PROPERTY"

From the *Tribune* (Chicago)



THE NEW DEMOCRATIC CONGRESS

The experiment is about to begin
From the *Times-Star* (Cincinnati)



"Now prove that you are not altogether a jackass"
(From the *Record*, Philadelphia)



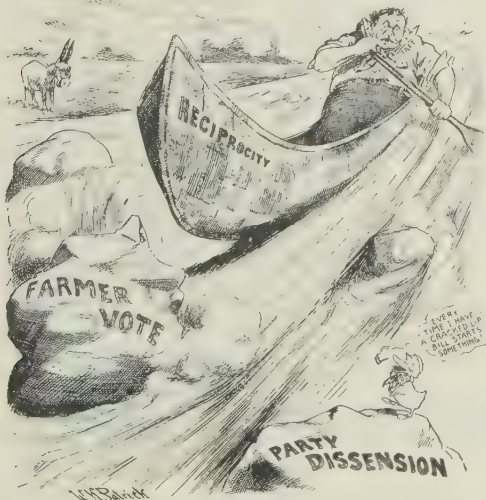
RECIPROCITY

THE MOOSE: "That's all right, my dear fellow. I knew it was only your chaff when you talked of swallowing me; and of course I, too, never seriously thought of swallowing you" (From *Punch*, London)

Coupled with the discussion of a reciprocity treaty between Canada and the United States, there has been a good deal of "annexation" talk in both countries, as well as in England. *Punch* presents, in the dignified cartoon above, the sober view of Canadians and Englishmen on this subject, while the "Straw Man," in the opposite column, humorously illustrates the American view.



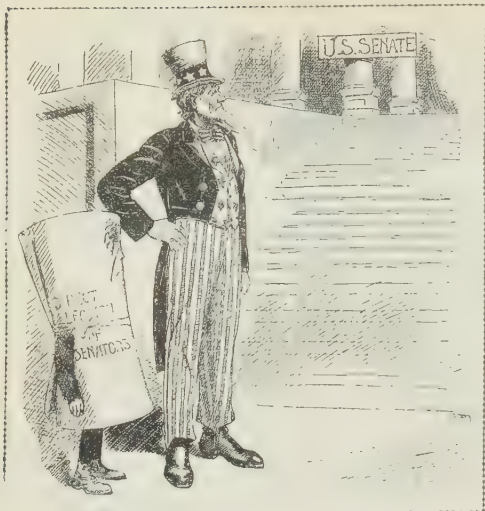
THE ANNEXATION "STRAW MAN"
From the *World* (New York)



ROCKS AHEAD
From the *Record* (Forth Worth)



PARENTAL INDIFFERENCE
THE YOUNG SALMON (Canada): "As my respected parent seems to be asleep, there's no harm in trying a little flutter on my own account" (From the *Pall Mall Gazette*, London)



"WE'LL BE BACK"

(The bill for the popular election of Senators was defeated in the last Congress)

From the *Oregonian* (Portland)

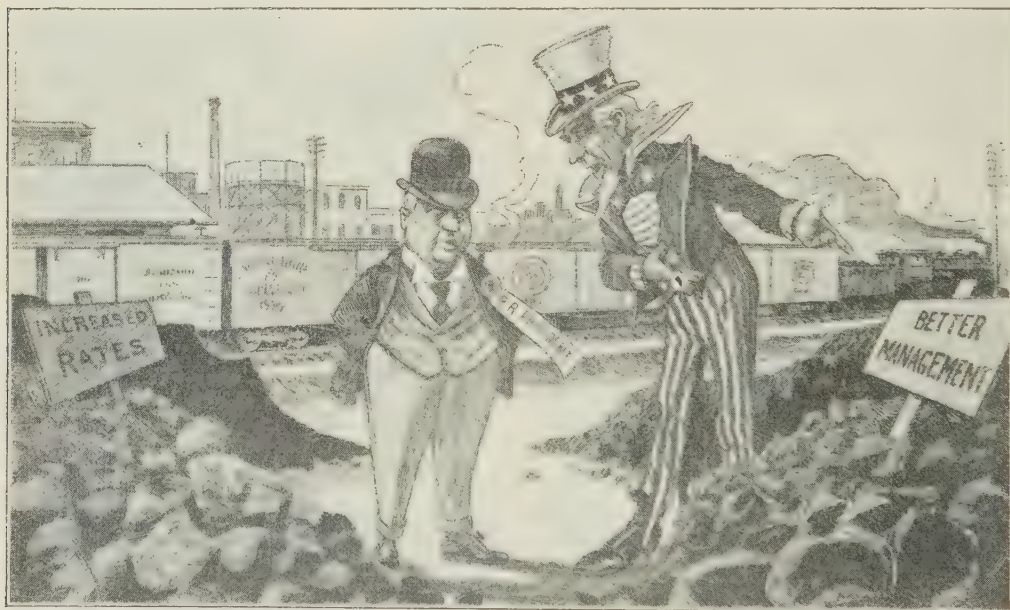


CAN'T SHAKE HIM (SHEEHAN)

Or, the cost of a Senatorial deadlock in New York
From the *Herald* (New York)

The popular election of United States senators, a bill for which was defeated in the last Congress, has been put on the program for the coming extra session. The friends of this reform are confident that it will be enacted. The sentiment in favor of the direct election of Senators by the people is greatly strength-

ened by the frequent and costly deadlocks over Senatorial elections in our State legislatures.



UNCLE SAM'S DICTUM TO THE RAILROADS

"If you'll properly utilize the better management fuel, you'll not need to ask for the other"

(The Interstate Commerce Commission decided against an increase of freight rates by the railroads; see page 397)

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)



WILL THE NEW CONGRESS ENGAGE HER?

UNCLE SAM: "Better take her; I don't want you doing the tariff work any more"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

The Sixty-first Congress did not take Uncle Sam's advice to engage a permanent tariff commission, for the bill, though successfully piloted through the stormy sessions of the Senate by Mr. Beveridge, was blocked by Mr. Fitzgerald's filibuster in the House. As pointed out in a cartoon below, the appointment of Mr. Fisher as Secretary of the Interior gives President Taft three members of the Cabinet from Chicago. The Southern Commercial Congress at Atlanta last month had the honor of entertaining both President Taft and ex-President Roosevelt at its ses-



CABINET MEMBERS WHO DO NOT LIVE IN CHICAGO: "I wonder who will be the next Secretary he gets from Chicago?"

From the *Record-Herald* (Chicago)



ISN'T SHE POPULAR?

From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)

sions. Mr. Roosevelt made Atlanta one of the chief stops in his six weeks' tour of the South and Southwest. He delivered addresses at various points on his trip, notably one on child labor at Birmingham, and opened the great Roosevelt irrigation dam in Arizona on March 18.

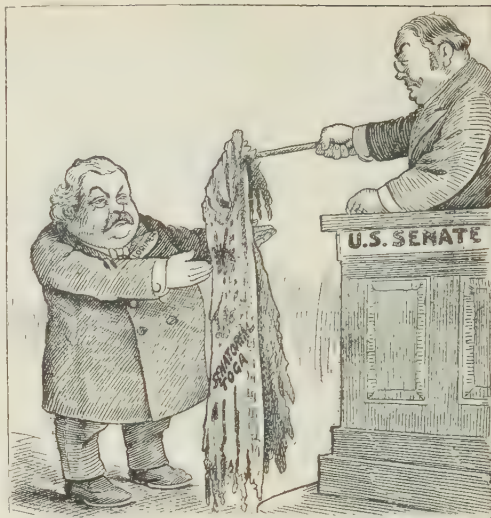


THE TYPE OF SUFFRAGETTE HAS CHANGED

From the *Tribune* (New York)



CROWDING

From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)

THE SENATE, TO LORIMER: "HERE'S YOUR TOGA—
IT MAY NEED A LITTLE DRY CLEANING"

(Referring to Senator Lorimer's "vindication" by the
United States Senate) From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



A RUSSIAN VIEW OF SOME INTERNATIONAL SITUATIONS
Japan rides Korea



Germany makes a monkey of the Turk
From the *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg)



Uncle Sam wins Canada from John Bull



TWO TREATIES—ONE WITH ENGLAND PROPOSED; ONE WITH JAPAN RATIFIED

Cousin Bill and Cousin John
From *Judge* (New York)



Hands across the sea
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia)

THE SERIOUS BERNARD SHAW

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

THREE qualities determine whatever Bernard Shaw is or does, as man and artist, as reformer and philosopher. They are his complete soundness of mind and body, his inflexible sincerity of conviction and purpose, and his remarkable many-sidedness. The combination of these qualities have made him what he is to-day—a power both in the world of thought and in the world of action. His own countrymen may still meet him with puzzled laughter, but they listen nevertheless to his words with increasing deference. In fact, I think it will be hard to find any other man who has done more to give English opinion its present trend and form. Some of his plays have, according to himself, “been translated and performed in all European countries except Turkey, Greece, and Portugal.” And nobody familiar with recent American thought can fail to recognize him as a dominant spiritual factor on this no less than on the other side of the ocean.

Shaw's characteristic soundness is not confined to muscles and brain cells. It extends to habits and instincts as well. It colors his entire outlook on life. It gives to his art a tone that some day will be recognized as kindred to that of Goethe. Proudly he has vaunted his own “abnormal normality.” People have taken it as another joke. But it is true, and it must be realized before we may claim familiarity with that strange phenomenon known to us as “G. B. S.” Not until we are similarly free from taint and weakness can we hope to see the world as it is mirrored in the genius of Shaw.

A STRONG MAN'S JESTING

Being healthy, Shaw is strong, and because of his strength he has faith—in himself, in man, in life. It is this rather than his Celtic origin that has made him a “laughing moralist” of the order that embraces Aristophanes and Rabelais, Molière and Heine. Weak men scream hysterically. Strong men laugh triumphantly even in the face of danger and death. Because of his faith founded on strength, Shaw can say: “When a habit of thought is silly, it only needs steady treatment by ridicule from sensible and witty people to be put out of countenance and perish.”

But back of his most smiling mood lies a serious purpose, and through his merriest jest glimmers the sharp steel of ruthless logic. “My way of joking is to tell the truth,” says *Father Keegan* in “John Bull's Other Island.” This is Shaw himself. Nothing is needed to turn his own jokes into wisdom but our advance to a point where we, too, can see the truth. How deeply serious he is at heart—and also how deeply “social” is his viewpoint—may be concluded from what he said in the course of a private conversation recorded by Professor Henderson: “I want to be thoroughly used up when I die, for the harder I work, the more I live. I rejoice in life for its own sake. Life is no ‘brief candle’ for me. It is a sort of splendid torch, which I have got hold of for the moment; and I want to make it burn as brightly as possible before handing it on to future generations.”

The natural accompaniment of his strength and his humor is an emotional balance so perfect that it renders him vastly patient of everything but that hysterical sentimentality which retards progress by obscuring the true relationships of life. “No more frightful misfortune could threaten us than a general spread of fanaticism,” he declared not long ago. It is this balance that enables him to see the other man's side, and that helps him to “look all around” the subject he is dealing with. An illustration may be drawn from his latest volume, which contains a “Preface on Doctors,” among other things. There every foible and fault of the medical profession stands mercilessly revealed. But there appears also this unsurpassed interpretation of that same profession at its best: “The true doctor is inspired by a hatred of ill-health, and a divine impatience of any waste of vital forces.”

A WELL-ROUNDED DEVELOPMENT

Because he is a genius in robust health and a moralist with a sense of humor, Shaw has escaped the one-sidedness which so often limits and mars even minds of real greatness. From the first he has striven for harmonious development of all faculties rather than for exaggerated accentuation of any one among them. Were it otherwise, he might have

ranked higher as artist, as reformer, or as thinker. As it is, we find his true greatness in an all-sidedness that combines, on one side, practice with theory, on the other side, the qualities of the artist with those of the reformer and the philosopher. And Shaw himself would be little loath to tell you that this all-inclusive greatness is greater than any other. But it is a gift that renders the possessor liable to more than an ordinary share of misunderstanding and misconstruction. Few men have been more heavily punished in this way than Shaw, and none that I can think of has passed through the inevitable ordeal with less bitterness against the rest of mankind.

ORIGINALITY

Springing from the prosperous middle class, Shaw holds defiantly that it is this stock which breeds the men by whom the world is constantly being remade. Left to himself by his parents, and regarding school as a mere "interruption of his education," he acquired early a spirit of independence and originality that has remained one of his chief characteristics through life. Early he learned also the great art of "doing without" as well as to rely on inner rather than outside sources for inspiration and consolation. While still little more than a child, he was introduced by his mother to the marvelous realm of modern art, and particularly to modern music. And when, years later, he became a critic, every line he wrote proclaimed him a man who had learned by seeing and hearing and thinking for himself, instead of by committing the words of other men to heart.

APPRENTICESHIP TO LETTERS

After five years of unwilling devotion to business, he removed to London—a boy of twenty who had practically to rely on his mother for a livelihood. Nine years of seeming failure followed. They were years of unbroken growth and relentless effort. They were also the years when "nobody would pay a farthing for a stroke of his pen." But during those long, penniless years he completed five big novels that have since been revived with success. At last he found a footing in London's vast world of letters, and from 1885 to 1898 he enjoyed a constantly growing reputation as a critic of music, art, and the drama. In 1892 he turned once more to imaginative writing, and when at last he abandoned the critic's office forever, his position as a playwright was already established.

While still a seeker after a self-made fortune, he became a Socialist and began his career as a worker for a new and better public order. In 1884 he joined that little band of talented agitators whose success at remolding English opinion and English politics has made the name of the Fabians famous all over the world. From the first he served their cause not only as "pamphleteer in ordinary," but as one of their most effective speakers and lecturers—a fact made the more notable by his initial failure in every attempt at public address. Like Demosthenes of old, he struggled the harder the more he failed. For a year he made it a rule to deliver at least one speech in public every week, most of them reaching the British public "from a cart in Hyde Park." And in the end he won out, here as elsewhere.

As one of the leaders of progressive London politics he was elected a borough councilor for St. Pancras, and during his six years of service he surprised his opponents by proving himself "a steady attendant and a level-headed man of business." No episode in this phase of his life is more typical of his broad-minded attitude toward everything and everybody than his defeat as a candidate for London county councilor in 1904. This was brought about by his refusal to overlook the good points in the Conservative government's education bill, about which the battle raged.

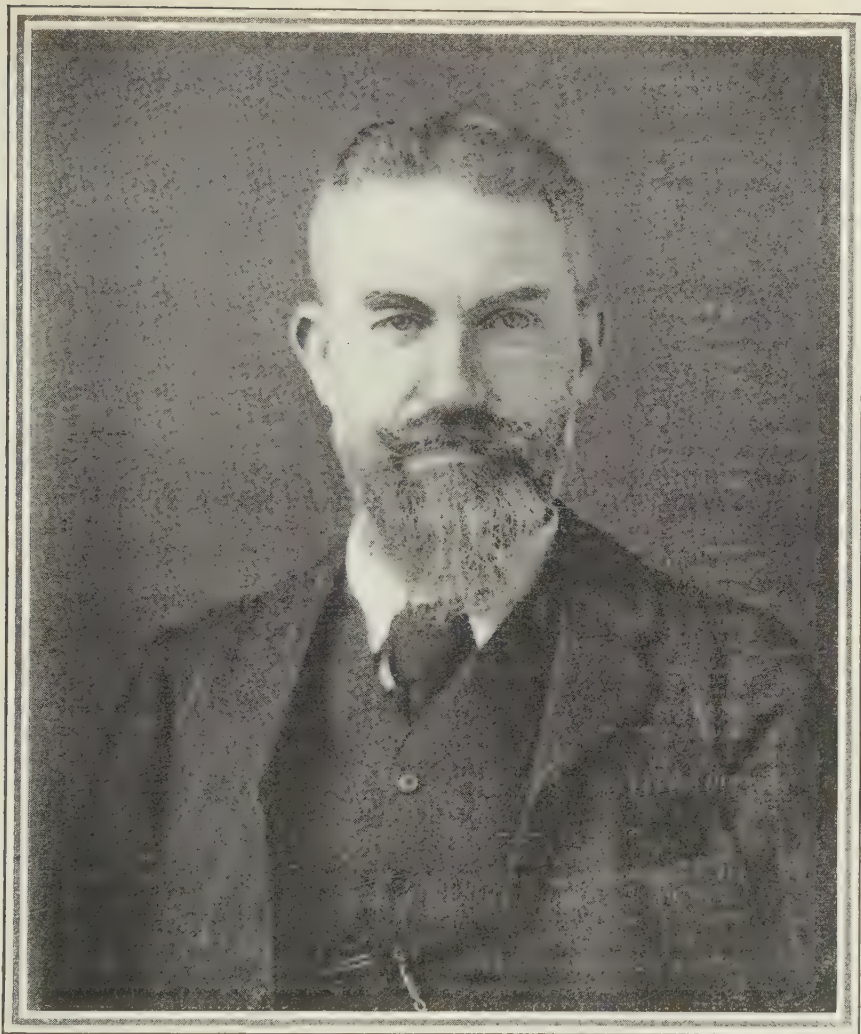
NOVELIST, CRITIC AND PLAYWRIGHT

The list of Shaw's writings is a formidable one by this time, even when his economic and "Fabian" essays are left out as not falling within the plan of this sketch. Besides the novels already mentioned, he has produced twenty plays, and to most of these he has attached long "prefaces" of genuine philosophic and sociological value. I give herewith the titles of his principal creative and critical works, with their respective dates of production:

NOVELS: "Immaturity," 1879 (never published); "The Irrational Knot," 1880; "Love Among the Artists," 1881; "Cashel Byron's Profession," 1882; "An Unsocial Socialist," 1883.

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM: "The Quintessence of Ibsenism," 1891; "The Sanity of Art," 1895 (Tucker); "On Going to Church," 1896 (Crowell); "The Perfect Wagnerite," 1898; "Dramatic Opinions and Essays," two volumes, 1895-98; "Socialism and Superior Brains," 1910 (Lane).

PLAYS: "Widowers' Houses," 1892; "The Philanderer," 1893; "Mrs. Warren's Profession," 1893; "Arms and the Man," 1894; "Candida,"



GEORGE BERNARD SHAW, THE SOCIALIST CRITIC, NOVELIST, AND PLAYWRIGHT

(Mr. Shaw was born in Dublin on July 26, 1856. In 1876 he went to London, entered journalism, and within a few years became known as an active Socialist, as well as a writer of extraordinary brilliancy)

THE SINCERITY OF HIS ART

1894; "The Man of Destiny," 1895; "You Never Can Tell," 1895; "The Devil's Disciple," 1897; "Cæsar and Cleopatra," 1898; "Captain Brassbound's Conversion," 1898; "The Admirable Bashville, or Constancy Unrewarded," 1901; "Man and Superman," 1903; "John Bull's Other Island," 1904; "How He Lied to Her Husband," 1905; "Major Barbara," 1905; "The Doctor's Dilemma," 1905; "Getting Married," 1908; "The Shewing-Up of Blanco Posnet," 1909; "Press Cuttings: a Topical Sketch compiled from the editorial correspondence columns of the Daily Papers," 1909 (to be published); "The Dark Lady of the Sonnets," 1910 (published here as a magazine article).¹

"Like all dramatists and mimes of genuine vocation, I am a natural-born mountebank," Shaw wrote once. It meant only that, unlike most of his colleagues, he had the courage and insight to accept the humble beginnings and historical growth of all art centering in the stage. For as an artist he has proved himself no less sincere than as man and social worker. A master of form, he has always looked beyond it to the spirit that, in the last analysis, makes all great art what it is. "The pleasures of the senses I can sympathize with and share," he says; "but the substitution of sensuous ecstasy for intel-

¹ All of these works not otherwise designated are brought out in this country by Brentano's, New York. The first eleven plays are published under the collective titles of "Plays Pleasant and Unpleasant" (two volumes) and "Three Plays for Puritans."

lectual activity and honesty is the very devil." And he has also said that "A statesman who confines himself to popular legislation—or a playwright who confines himself to popular plays—is like a blind man's dog, who goes wherever the blind man pulls him."

More than once he has been charged with a lack of artistic humility. But what seemed like rank arrogance—his criticism of Shakespeare, for example—was merely a clear-eyed realization of the need every new age feels for an art and a literature wholly its own. The world is ever moving on to new knowledge and new problems, he tells us, and therefore "the humblest author may profess to have something to say by this time that neither Homer nor Shakespeare said." To be fully appreciated, these words should be read in connection with another utterance of his: "The next Shakespeare that comes along will turn these petty tentatives of mine into masterpieces final for their epoch."

HIIS EARLIER NOVELS

How much of his work will live, or how long it will live, no one may presume to foretell as yet. And it is almost as hard to determine the comparative value of his various productions. Shaw himself has talked slightly of the "jejune" novels from his "non-age," and less disinterested critics have accepted his judgment. But I suspect that the future will look upon them in a much more favorable light. They are wonderfully vital and no less wonderfully modern. It seems almost beyond reason that a man in the early twenties wrote them. "Cashel Byron's Profession," the first of Shaw's works ever published in book form, was declared by the *Saturday Review* to be "the novel of the age." Looking back at his second novel from the height of experience gained in 1905, Shaw wrote of "The Irrational Knot" that he "found it fiction of the first order." I am personally inclined to rank "Love Among the Artists" with the biggest books of the period, and I think it must be classed among the main forebears of such commanding works as Wells' "Tono-Bungay" and Bennett's "Clayhanger." Unlike other forebears, however, it remains capable of holding its own beside its offspring.

HIS CONTRIBUTION TO THE MODERN DRAMA

As a playwright Shaw has done more to instil new ideas into the drama than to improve its form. He himself has asserted that

"it is the philosophy, the outlook on life, that changes, not the craft of the playwright." But for all that, his formal perfection has always been noteworthy, and more than once he has broken new paths in this line also. "Getting Married," one of the plays included in the volume published only a few weeks ago, marks a step ahead not only in spirit but in execution. Besides being one of the finest and deepest dramas that ever flowed from his fruitful pen, it is a masterpiece of design. While having the usual length of a whole evening play, it is drawn together into a single act, thereby gaining a unity and force rarely surpassed among modern plays. Strindberg has previously worked along similar lines, but one can easily see that Shaw, as usual, has been following the voice from within, and not a pattern imposed from without.

INSIGHT AND EXPRESSION

A phase of his art that deserves special attention is his character drawing, which, I think, has few equals in this or any other period. Here I can only instance the tender irony surrounding most of the figures in "John Bull's Other Island," and the merciless, yet comprehending, satire with which every person in "The Doctor's Dilemma" has been pictured. Nor does Shaw fall short in that perfection which English dramatic tradition has placed above all others—namely, force and beauty of expression. One must seek far and wide to find anything more deeply poetical than that passage which Shaw lets Mrs. George in "Getting Married" utter in a trance as the mouthpiece of Eternal Woman.

A DEVOTEE OF FRANKNESS AND KINDNESS

Not long ago Shaw proclaimed himself "a specialist in immoral and heretical plays." But "immoral" is to him "whatever is contrary to established manners and customs." To work for a change along rational lines is the supreme duty of him who takes his art seriously. The directional tendency of this change he has indicated as follows: "The whole difficulty of bringing up a family well is the difficulty of making its members behave as considerably at home as on a visit in a strange house, and as frankly, kindly, and easily in a strange house as at home." Frankness and kindness are to him the main virtues, whether only the family or society as a whole be considered. And he knows of no better means for their promotion than being a Socialist. Marxian economics he accepts,

but what he really aims at is the substitution of social interdependence for individual self-sufficiency. He wants organization and brotherly coöperation above everything else, deeming "any orthodoxy better than *laissez-faire*." And though a Socialist, he has no use for "the modern notion that democracy means governing a country according to the ignorance of its majorities." On the contrary, he believes that "we need aristocracy in the sense of government by the best."

He has never wasted any time on the building of Utopias, but what his mind's eye reads out of the future for which he is hoping may be concluded from his recent reference to the present time as "the famine years of the soul, when the great vital dogmas of honor, liberty, courage, the kinship of all life, faith that the unknown is greater than the known and is only the As Yet Unknown, and resolution to find a manly highway to it, have been forgotten in a paroxysm of littleness and terror." What strikes one at once about this passage is its spiritual, not to say mystical, tone. He expects material orderliness and efficiency from the state that is to come, but with these alone he will not be satisfied. Above them he places the development of the individual to a point where virtue shall come as naturally as breathing. And his conception of virtue is decidedly austere. He has written "Plays for Puritans"—he is a Puritan. But his morality is, first of all, cleanliness—not only of word and act, but of thought. It is more: the actual fastidiousness of a soul whose tastes, according to one of his biographers, "is by nature peculiarly free from what is gross."

Here we have a reason why this arch-iconoclast declares marriage "practically inevitable" and wants nothing but to render it "reasonable" by making divorce easily obtainable and women economically independent of men. Here as elsewhere, he has no use for mere freedom, and his ideas of honor are as rigid as those of any "bourgeois." His attitude is well symbolized by the manner in which *Hotchkiss* draws back from *Mrs. George* in the final scene of "Getting Married," while announcing that, "To disbelieve in marriage is easy; to love a mar-

ried woman is easy; but to betray a comrade, to be disloyal to a host, to break the covenant of salt and bread, is impossible."

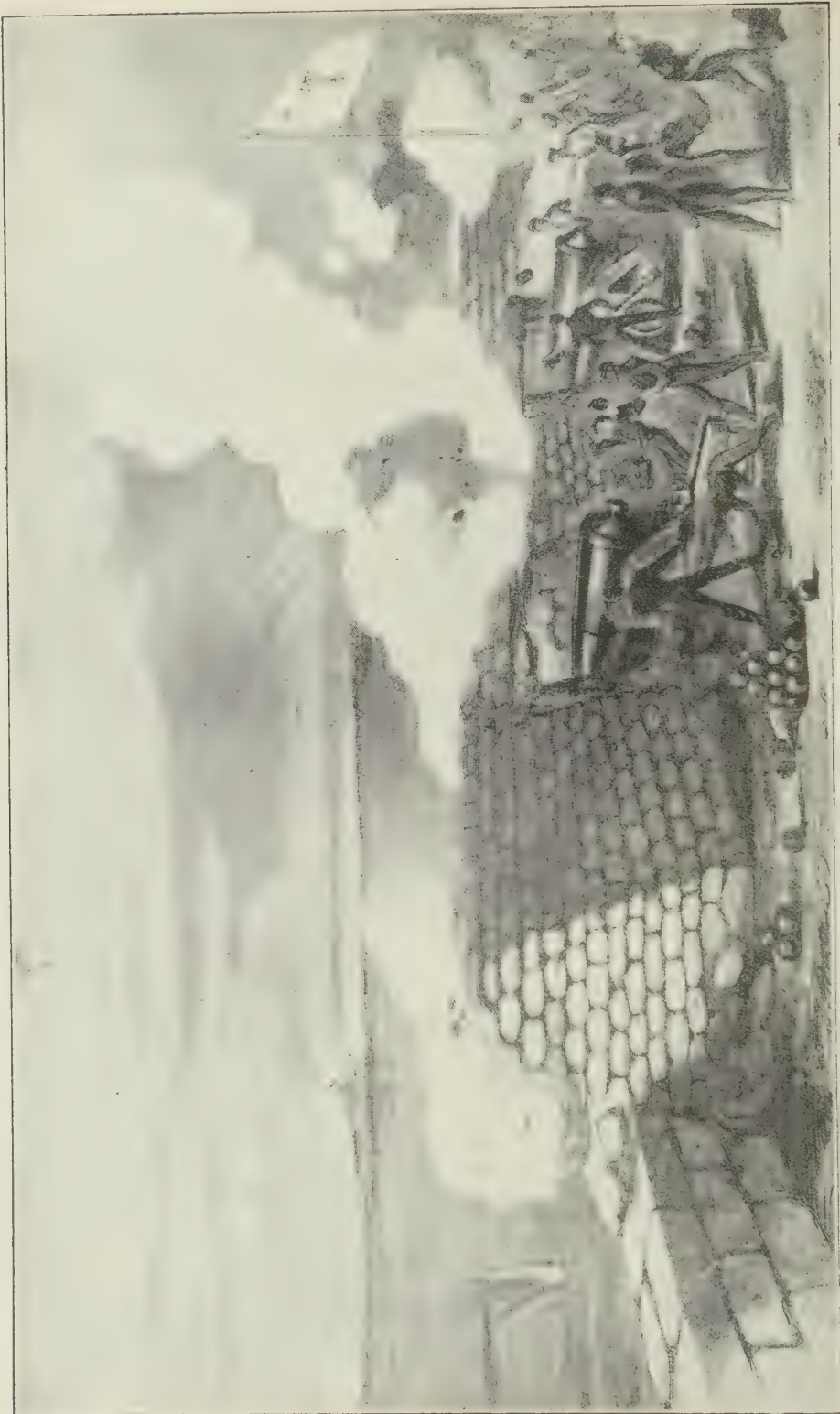
HIS PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

His individual and social morals are the direct outgrowth of his philosophical ideas, which he has not taken ready-made from others, as has been hinted more than once. Those ideas have come to him just as they came to Ibsen and Nietzsche: out of the spiritual atmosphere in which both he and they were born. To-day his ideas are being scientifically formulated by men like Wilhelm Ostwald and Henri Bergson. They imply a new philosophy that may be called "psycho-sociological" in distinction from the older theological and mechanical philosophies. As Shaw sees life, it is never purposeless, never a matter of chance, never capable of turning back upon its already covered trail. Its way leads ever onward, and the direction is determined from within by a universal force, the Life Force—the same as Bergson's *élan vital*—which employs whatever has being for the accomplishment of its own unformulated aims.

It is this all-compelling force which Shaw has in mind when he makes *Blanco Posnet*, the horse-thief, cry, with the noose barely off his neck: "You bet He didn't make me for nothing; and He wouldn't have made us at all if He could have done His work without us."

"This little play is really a religious tract in dramatic form," says Shaw of "The Shewing-Up of Blanco Posnet," and he speaks the truth. For he is a very religious man, indeed,—so much so that his life and his art, his morals and his philosophy, are mere adjuncts to his religion: the great religion of the Life Force that demands of us at once so much and so little. What it does demand according to Shaw is merely that we learn to see and act upon the truth that flashed its illumination into Blanco Posnet's heart as he cried: "There's no good and bad; but, by Jiminy, gents, there's a rotten game, and there's a great game. I played the rotten game; but the great game was played on me; and now I'm for the great game every time. Amen."



Cummings
Point

Fort Sumter

Charleston

Fort Moultrie

Floating
Battery

THE CONFEDERATE ATTACK ON FORT SUMTER IN APRIL, 1861 FORT MOULTRIE IN THE FOREGROUND
(From a contemporary drawing)



ALABAMA MEN IN THE CONFEDERATE MILITARY CAMPS OF 1861

GLIMPSES OF THE CONFEDERATE ARMY

BY RANDOLPH H. MCKIM

(Late First Lieutenant, and A. D. C. Third Brigade, Army of Northern Virginia)

[The two articles which are published this month in the Civil War anniversary series will be read with special interest, we believe, south of Mason and Dixon's line. Dr. Randolph H. McKim, who is the well-known rector of the Church of the Epiphany, at Washington, D. C., has prepared for the "Photographic History of the Civil War" an introductory chapter from the viewpoint of the individual soldier in the Confederate army, bringing out the conditions under which the war was waged by that army, and showing the differences between those conditions and the life and activity of the Union army. From that chapter we have selected the following paragraphs for presentation in the magazine series. Something should be said of the accompanying illustrations, all of which are from actual photographs taken within the Confederate lines by Southern photographers within a few months after the outbreak of hostilities. These photographs have never before been published.—THE EDITOR.]

A GLANCE at the personnel of the Confederate army in the years 1861-65 will perhaps be instructive. In its ranks are serving, side by side, the sons of the plain farmer and the sons of the great landowners—the Southern aristocrat. Not a few of the men who are carrying muskets, or serving as troopers, are classical scholars, the flower of the Southern universities. In an interval of the suspension of hostilities at the battle of Cold Harbor, a private soldier lies on the ground poring over an Arabic grammar—it is Crawford H. Toy, who is destined to become the famous professor of Oriental languages at Harvard University. In one of the battles in the Valley of Virginia a volunteer aid of General John B. Gordon is severely wounded—it is Basil L. Gildersleeve, who has left his professor's chair at the University of Virginia to serve in the

field. He still lives, wearing the laurel of distinction as the greatest Grecian in the English-speaking world. At the siege of Fort Donelson in 1862 one of the heroic Captains who yields up his life in the trenches is the Reverend Dabney C. Harrison, who raised a company in his own Virginia parish, and entered the army at its head. In the Southwest a lieutenant general falls in battle—it is Gen. Leonidas Polk, who laid aside his Bishop's robes to become a soldier in the field, having been educated to arms at West Point.

It is a striking fact that when Virginia threw in her lot with her Southern sisters in April, 1861, practically the whole body of students at her State University, 515 out of 530 who were registered from the Southern States, enlisted in the Confederate army. That army thus represented the whole

Southern people. It was a self-levy *en masse* of the male population in all save certain mountain regions in Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia.

One gets a possibly new and surprising conception of the character of the rank and file of the Southern army in such incidents as the following: Here are mock trials going on in the moot court of a certain artillery company and the discussions are pronounced by a competent authority "brilliant and powerful." Here is a group of privates in a Maryland infantry regiment in winter-quarter huts near Fairfax, Va.; and among the subjects discussed are these,—Vattel and Philmore on international law; Humboldt's works and travels; the African explorations of Barth; the influence of climate on the human features; the culture of cotton; the laws relating to property. Here are some Virginia privates in a howitzer company solemnly officiating at the burial of a tame crow; and the exercises include an English speech, a Latin oration, and a Greek ode!

These Confederate armies must present to the historian who accepts the common view that the South was fighting for the perpetuation of the institution of slavery a

difficult—in fact, an insoluble problem. How could such a motive explain the solidarity of the diverse elements that made up those armies? The Southern planter might fight for his slaves; but why the poor white man who had none? How could slavery generate such devotion, such patient endurance, such splendid heroism, such unconquerable tenacity through four long years of painfully unequal struggle? The world acknowledges the superb valor of the men who fought under the Southern Cross,—and the no less superb devotion of the whole people to the cause of the Confederacy. Mr. Roosevelt has written, "The world has never seen better soldiers than those who followed Lee." General Hooker has testified that "for steadiness and efficiency" Lee's army was unsurpassed in ancient or modern times. "We have not been able to rival it," Gen. Charles A. Whittier, of Massachusetts, has said. "The Army of Northern Virginia will deservedly rank as the best army which has existed on the continent, suffering privations unknown to its opponent. The North sent no such army to the field."

Now, is it credible that such valor and such devotion were inspired by the desire to hold



YOUTHFUL CONFEDERATE SOLDIERS—MEMBERS OF THE WASHINGTON ARTILLERY OF NEW ORLEANS—IN CAMP TWO WEEKS BEFORE THE BATTLE OF SHILOH



A GROUP OF SOUTH CAROLINA ARTILLERYMEN IN THE SPRING OF 1861

(These men, who had belonged to the State militia just previous to the war, entered the Confederate service still wearing the blue uniforms of their companies. Number 2 of this group is Allen J. Green, later a major of Confederate Volunteers. No. 4 is W. K. Bachman, later captain of the German Volunteers (Bachman's Battery). No. 3 is Winlot G. de Saussure, then lieutenant and later captain of another company)

their fellow men in slavery? Is there any example of such a phenomenon in all the long records of history?

Consider, too, another fact for which the historians must assign a sufficient motive. On the bronze tablets in the Rotunda of the University of Virginia, memorializing the students who fell in the great war, there are upward of five hundred names, and of these two hundred and thirty-three were still privates when they fell, so that, considering the number of promotions from the ranks, it is certain that far more than half of those alumni who gave up their lives for the Southern cause volunteered as private soldiers. They did not wait for place or office, but unhesitatingly entered the ranks, with all the hardships that involved. Probably no army ever contained among its privates soldiers more young men of high culture, graduates in arts, in letters, in languages, in the physical sciences, in the higher mathematics, and in the learned professions, than the army that fought under the Southern Cross. And how cheerful,—how uncomplaining,—how gallant they were! They marched and fought and starved truly without reward. Eleven dollars a month in Confederate paper was their stipend. Flour and bacon and peanut coffee made up their bill of fare. The hard earth or else three fence rails, tilted up on end, was their bed, their knapsacks their pillows, and a flimsy blanket their covering. The starry firmament was often their only tent. Their clothing,—well I cannot describe it. I can only say it was “a thing of shreds and patches,” interspersed with rents.

But this was not all. They had not even the reward which is naturally dear to a soldier's heart,—I mean the due recognition of gallantry in action. By a strange oversight there was no provision in the Confederate army for recognizing either by decoration or by promotion on the field, distinguished acts of gallantry. No “Victoria Cross,” or its equivalent, rewarded even the most desperate acts of valor.

Now with these facts before him the historian will find it impossible to believe that these men drew their swords and did these heroic deeds and bore these incredible hardships for four long years for the sake of the institution of slavery. Every one who was conversant, as I was during the whole war, with the opinions of the soldiers of the Southern army, knows that they did not wage that tremendous conflict for slavery. That was a subject very little in their thoughts or on their lips. Not one in ten of those grim veterans who were so terrible on the battlefield had

any financial interest in slavery. No, they were fighting for liberty, for the right of self-government. They believed the Federal authorities were assailing that right. It was the sacred heritage of Anglo-Saxon freedom, of local self-government won at Runnymede, that they believed in peril when they flew to arms as one man, from the Potomac to the Rio Grande. They may have been right, or they may have been wrong, but that was the issue they made. On that they stood. For that they died.

Not until this fact is realized by the student of the great war will he have the solution of the problem which is presented by the qualities of the Confederate soldier. The men who made up that army were not soldiers of fortune, but soldiers of duty, who dared all that men can dare, and endured all that man can endure, in obedience to what they believed the sacred call of Country. They loved their States; they loved their homes and their firesides; they were no politicians; many of them knew little of the warring theories of constitutional interpretation. But one thing they knew,—armed legions were marching upon their homes, and it was their duty to hurl them back at any cost!

A conspicuous feature of this Southern army is its Americanism. Go from camp to camp, among the infantry, the cavalry, the artillery, and you are impressed with the fact that these men are, with very few exceptions, Americans. Here and there you will encounter one or two Irishmen. (And, by the way, Major Stiles tells a story of a most amusing encounter between two gigantic Irishmen at the battle of Gettysburg—the one a Federal Irishman, a prisoner, and the other a Rebel Irishman, private in the Ninth Louisiana—a duel with fists in the midst of the roar of the battle!) Very, very rarely you will meet a German, like that superb soldier Major Van Brock, who so endeared himself to Jeb Stuart's cavalry. But these exceptions only accentuate the broad fact that the Confederate army is composed almost exclusively of Americans. That throws some light on its achievements, does it not? I may here recall a good story told by Senator Hoar in his autobiography. Henry Ward Beecher, some time in 1862, was speaking on behalf of the Union in Liverpool. The audience was unfriendly, and in the course of his speech he was interrupted by some one in the crowd, who called out, “You said you would smash up the Southern army in ninety days. Why didn't you do it?” At this



MEN OF THE NINTH MISSISSIPPI INFANTRY IN CAMP NEAR MOBILE, 1861
(Photograph taken by Edwards of New Orleans. The regiment distinguished itself at Shiloh)

there was a burst of laughter throughout the house, and many a gibe was hurled at the speaker. Mr. Beecher waited until the audience had quieted down, and then said, "My friends, if the rebels had been Englishmen, we would have done it!" Those men in gray were Americans of the purest blood.

I think the visitor to the Confederate camps would also be struck by the spirit of bonhomie which so largely prevailed. These Johnnie Rebs, in their gray uniforms (which, as the war went on, changed in hue to butternut brown), are a jolly lot. They have a dry, racy humor of their own which breaks out on the least provocation. I have often heard them cracking jokes on the very edge of the battle. They were soldier *boys* to the bitter end.

General Rodes in his report described the dark and difficult night passage of the Potomac on the retreat from Gettysburg. He says, "All the circumstances attending this crossing combined to make it an affair not only involving great hardships, but one of great danger to the men and company officers; but be it said to the honor of these brave fellows, they encountered it not only promptly, but actually with cheers and laughter."

On the other hand, some from the remote country districts were like children away from home. They couldn't get used to it—and often they drooped, and sickened and died, just from *nostalgia*. In many of the regiments during the first six months or more of the war, there were negro cooks, but—as

time went on these disappeared, except in the officers' mess. Among the Marylanders, where my service lay, it was quite different. We had to do our own cooking. Once a week I performed that office for a mess of fifteen hungry men. At first we lived on "slap-jacks"—almost as fatal as Federal bullets!—and fried bacon; but by degrees we learned to make biscuits—and on one occasion my colleague in the culinary business and I created an apple pie, which the whole mess considered a *chef-d'œuvre*! May I call your attention to those ramrods wrapped round with dough and set up on end before the fire? The cook turns them from time to time, and when well browned, he withdraws the ramrod, and lo! a loaf of bread, three feet long and hollow from end to end!

The general aspect of the Confederate camps compared unfavorably with those of the men in blue. They were not, as a rule, attractive in appearance. The tents and camps' equipage were nothing like so smart, so spic and span,—very far from it indeed! Our engineer corps were far inferior, lacking in proper tools and equipment. The sappers and miners of the Federal army on Cemetery Hill at Gettysburg did rapid and effective work during the night following the first day's battle, as they had previously done at Chancellorsville—work which our men could not begin to match. When we had to throw up breastworks in the field, as at Hagers-

town, after Gettysburg, it had usually to be done with our bayonets. Spades and axes were luxuries at such times. Bands of music were rare, and generally of inferior quality; but the men made up for it as far as they could by a gay *insouciance*, and by singing in camp and on the march. I have seen the men of the First Maryland Infantry trudging wearily through mud and rain, sadly bedraggled by a long march, strike up with great gusto their favorite song, "Gay and happy."

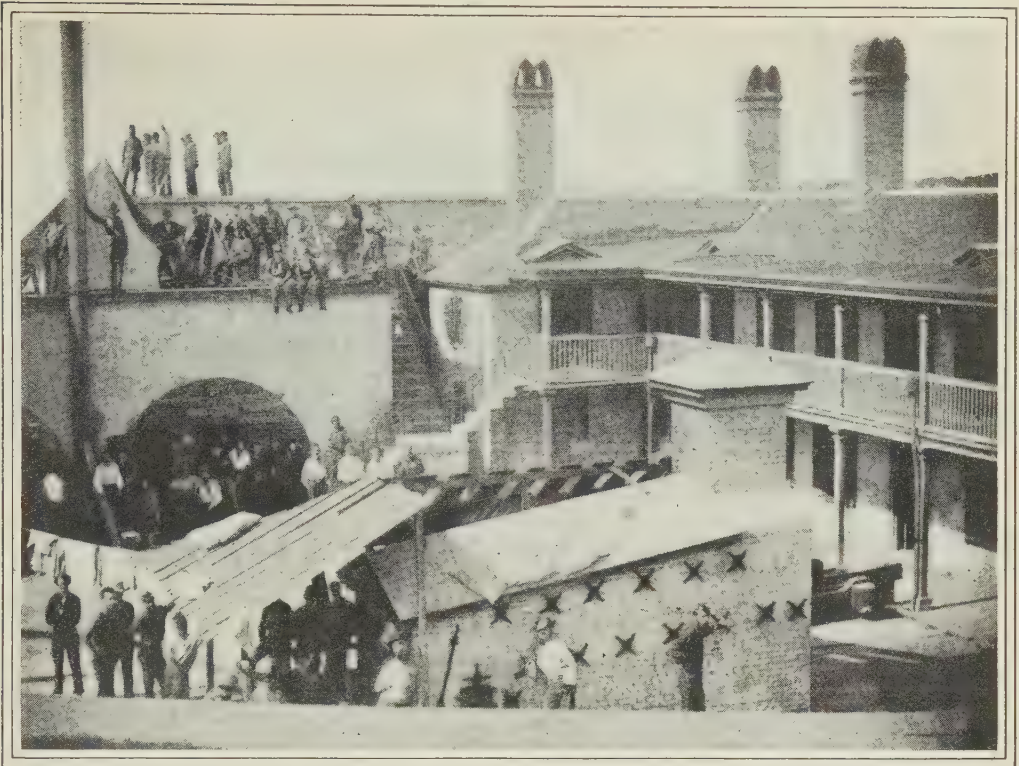
"So let the wide world wag as it will,
We'll be gay and happy still."

The contrast between the sentiment of the song and the environment of the column was sufficiently striking. In one respect I think our camps had the advantage of the Union camps,—we had no sutlers, and we had no camp followers.

But though our camp equipage and equipment were so inferior to those of our antagonists, I do not think any experienced soldier, watching our marching columns of infantry or cavalry, or witnessing our brigade drills, could fail to be thrilled by the spectacle they presented. Here at least there was no inferiority to the army in blue. The soldierly qualities that tell on the march, and on the field of battle, shone out here conspicuously. A more impressive spectacle has seldom been seen in any wars than was presented by Jeb Stuart's brigades of cavalry when they passed



ALABAMA MEN IN GRAY—CAPT. G. W. DAWSON'S PEROTE GUARDS AT PEROTE SAND BATTERIES, MOBILE



THE CHARLESTON ZOUAVE CADETS GUARDING FEDERAL PRISONERS IN CASTLE PINCKNEY, 1861

(These prisoners were Federal soldiers captured at Bull Run)

in review before General Lee at Brandy Station in June, 1863. The pomp and pageantry of gorgeous uniforms and dazzling equipment of horse and riders, were indeed absent; but splendid horsemanship, and that superb *esprit de corps* that marks the veteran legion, and which, though not a tangible or a visible thing, yet stamps itself upon a marching column—these were unmistakably here. And I take leave to express my own individual opinion that the blue-gray coat of the Confederate officer, richly adorned with gold lace, and his light-blue trousers, and that rakish slouch hat he wore, made up a uniform of great beauty. Oh, it was a gallant array to look upon that June day of 1863!

Among the amusements in camp card-playing was of course included; "seven up" and "vingt-et-un," I believe, were popular. And the pipe was Johnnie Reb's frequent solace. His tobacco, at any rate, was the real thing—genuine, no make-believe like his coffee. Often you will see large gatherings of the men night after night attending prayer meetings, always with preaching added, for there was a strong religious tone in the Army of Northern Virginia. One or two remark-

able revivals took place, notably in the winter of 1863-4.

It seems to me as I look back that one of the things which stood out strongly in the Confederate army was the independence and the initiative of the individual soldier. It would have been a better army in the field if it had been welded together by a stricter discipline,—but this defect was largely atoned for by the strong individuality of the units in the column. It was not easy to demoralize a body composed of men who thought and acted in a spirit of independence in battle.

As an illustration of the spirit of the private soldier I recall an incident to this effect. Major General Gordon had organized a strong column to make a night attack on Grant's lines at Petersburg. When he was ready to move and the order to advance was given, a big Texan stepped out of the ranks and said: "General Gordon, this column can't move before 1 A. M. The men have a truce with the Yanks, and it ain't up till one o'clock." The column did not move till that hour. The private in the ranks had taken command, and the Major General recognized his authority!



A CONFEDERATE BLOCKADE RUNNER

THE FEDERAL NAVY AND THE SOUTH

BY FRENCH E. CHADWICK

(Rear Admiral, United States Navy)

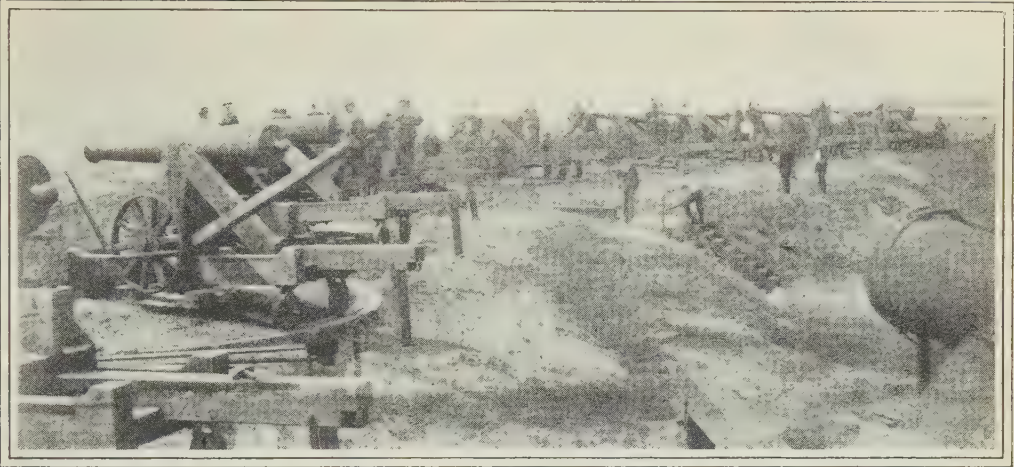
[The following article has been contributed as an introductory chapter to the "Photographic History of the Civil War." It presents, in a striking way, a Federal naval officer's view of the real causes of the fall of the Confederacy in 1865.—THE EDITOR.]

NOW that half a century has passed since the Civil War, we have come to a point where we can deal calmly with the philosophy of the great contest without too great disturbance of the feeling which came near to wrecking our nationality. The actualities of the struggle will be dealt with in the "Photographic History" about to be published by the Review of Reviews Company. Meanwhile it is not amiss to look into the causes of the South's failure to set up a nation and to justify Gladstone's assurance of Southern success as expressed in his Newcastle speech in 1862.

It has been, as a rule, taken for granted that the South was worsted in a fair fight in the field. This is so in a moderate degree only; for the fight was not wholly a fair one. Difference of forces in the field may be set aside, as the fight being on the ground of the weaker, any disproportion in numbers was largely annulled. But the army of the North was lavishly equipped; there was no want of arms, food, raiment, ammunition, or medical care. Everything an army could have the Federal forces had to overflowing. On the other hand, the Southern army was starved of all necessities, not to speak of the luxuries which the abounding North poured forth for

its men in the field. The South was in want of many of these necessities even in the beginning of the war; toward the end it was in want of all. It was because of this want that it had to yield. Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, writing General Beauregard in 1868, said truly: "We, without the means of purchasing supplies of any kind, or procuring or repairing arms, could continue this war only as robbers or guerillas." The Southern army finally melted away and gave up the fight because it had arrived at the limit of human endurance through the suffering which came of the absolute want brought by the blockade.

Some few historians have recognized and made clear this fact, notably Gen. Charles Francis Adams, himself a valiant soldier of the war. Another is Mr. John Christopher Schwab, professor of political economy in Yale University. The former, analyzing six reasons for the South's failure, given by a British sympathizer in *Blackwood's Magazine* for July, 1866, says: "We are . . . through elimination brought down to one factor, the blockade, as the controlling condition of Union success. In other words that success was made possible by the undisputed naval and maritime superiority of the North. Cut off from the outer world and all exterior



CONFEDERATE GUNS AT FORT BARRANCAS, FLA., TRAINED UPON THE BLOCKADING FLEET

(The fort commanded the inner channel to Pensacola Bay)

sources of supply, reduced to a state of inanition by the blockade, the Confederacy was pounded to death."¹ The "pounding" was mainly done by the army; the conditions which permitted it to be effectively done, were mainly established by the navy.

"The blockade," says Dr. Schwab in his "Financial and Industrial History of the South during the Civil War," "constituted the most powerful tool at the command of the Federal Government in its efforts to subdue the South. The relentless and almost uniformly successful operations of the navy have been minimized in importance by the at times more brilliant achievements of the army; but we lean to ascribing to the navy the larger share in undermining the power of resistance on the part of the South. It was the blockade rather than the ravages of the army that sapped the industrial strength of the Confederacy."

The South was thus beaten by want, and not merely by force of arms. A nation of well on to 6,000,000 could never have been conquered on its own ground by even the great forces the North brought against it but for this failure of resources which made it impossible to bring its full fighting strength into the field.

We know that there was a total of 2,841,906 enlistments and reenlistments in the army and navy of the North, representing some 1,600,000 three-year enlistments; we shall, however, never know the actual forces of the South on account of the unfortunate destruction of the Southern records of enlistments

and levies. That some 1,100,000 men were available is, of course, patent from the fact that the white population of the seceding States was 5,600,000, and to these were added 125,000 men, who, as sympathizers, joined the Southern army. The South fought as men have rarely fought. Its spirit was the equal of that of any race or time, and if the 325,000 Boers in South Africa could put 80,000 men into the field, the 5,600,000 of the South would have furnished an equal proportion had there been arms, clothing, food and the rest of the many accessories which, besides men, go to make an army. The situation which prevented an accomplishment of such results as those in South Africa, and it was impossible in the circumstances that they could be, was the result of the blockade of the Southern coast, a force the South was powerless to resist.

What has been said shows how clear was the rôle of the navy. The strategic situation was of the simplest; to deprive the South of its intercourse with Europe and in addition to cut the Confederacy in twain through the control of the Mississippi. The latter, gained largely by the battles of Farragut, Porter, Foote, and Davis, was but a part of the great scheme of blockade, as it cut off the supply of food from Texas and the shipments of material which entered that State by way of Matamoras. The question of the military control of Texas could be left aside so long as its communications were cut, for in any case the State would finally have to yield with the rest of the Confederacy. The many thousand troops which could have been an invaluable reinforcement to the Southern armies in the

¹ Charles Francis Adams, "Proceedings, Massachusetts Historical Society," 1905, vol. xix, 224.

East were to remain west of the Mississippi and were to have no influence in the future events.

The determination to attempt by force to reinstate the Federal authority over a vast territory 800 miles from north to south and 1700 from east to west, defended by such forces as mentioned, was truly a gigantic proposition, to be measured somewhat by the effort put forth by Great Britain to subdue the comparatively very small forces of the South African Republic. The frontier of the Confederacy, along which operations were to begin, was 1500 miles in length. Within the Confederacy were railways which connected Chattanooga with Lynchburg in Virginia on the east and with Memphis, on the Mississippi, on the west; two north and south lines ran, the one to New Orleans, the other to Mobile; Atlanta connected with Chattanooga; Mobile and Savannah were in touch with Richmond through the coast line which passed through Wilmington and Charleston. No part of the South, east of the Mississippi, was very distant from railway transportation, which for a long period the South carried on excepting in that portion which ran from Lynchburg to Chattanooga through the eastern part of Tennessee, where the population was in the main sympathetic with the Union.

Thus the South had the great advantage, which it held for several years, of holding and operating on interior lines. Its communications were held intact, whereas those of the Federals, as in the case of Grant's advance by way of the Wilderness, were often in danger. It was not until Sherman made his great march to the sea across Georgia—a march which Colonel Henderson, the noted English writer on strategy, says, "would have been impossible had not a Federal fleet been ready to receive him when he reached the Atlantic"—that the South felt its communications hopelessly involved.

To say that in the beginning there was any broad and well-considered strategic plan at Washington for army action would be an error. There was no such thing as a general staff, no central organization to do the planning of campaigns, such as now exists. The commanders of Eastern and Western armies went much their own gait without any general coördination. It was not until Grant practically came to supreme military command that coördination came.

Four Unionist objectives, however, were clear. The greatly disaffected border States which had not joined the Confederacy must be secured and the loyal parts of Virginia and Tennessee defended; the Southern ports blockaded; the great river which divided the Confederacy into an East and West brought under Federal control; and the army which defended Richmond overcome. At the end of two years the first and third had been secured, but it was nearly two years more before the gallant Army of Northern Virginia succumbed through the general misery wrought in the Confederacy by the sealing of its ports and the consequent inability of the Southerners to hold their own against the ever-increasing, well-fed and well-supplied forces of the North. To quote again the able Englishman just mentioned: "Judicious indeed was the policy which, at the very outset of the war, brought the tremendous pressure of the sea-power to bear against the South, and had her statesmen possessed the knowledge of what that pressure meant, they must have realized that Abraham Lincoln was no ordinary foe. In forcing the Confederates to become the aggressors, and to fire on the national ensign, he had created a united North; in establishing a blockade of their coasts he brought into play a force which, like the mills of the gods, "grinds slowly, but grinds exceeding small." It was the command of the sea which finally told and made possible the reuniting of the States.





From the *Musical Courier*, New York

THE PRODUCERS OF "NATOMA," THE AMERICAN OPERA

(From left to right: Joseph D. Redding, who wrote the "Natoma" libretto; Andreas Dippel, general manager Philadelphia-Chicago Grand Opera Company; Cleofonte Campanini, general musical director Philadelphia-Chicago Grand Opera Company, and Victor Herbert, composer of "Natoma")

AMERICAN OPERA ON AMERICAN THEMES

ARTISTIC SIGNIFICANCE OF HERBERT'S "NATOMA" AND CONVERSE'S "SACRIFICE"

BY ARTHUR FARWELL

IT is not often that one stone hits as many as three birds, yet that is what has happened in the case of Victor Herbert's grand opera, "Natoma," which on February 23 and 28, respectively, was ushered into the musical world by the Chicago Opera Company by way of the Philadelphia and New York opera houses.

In the course of America's struggle to become a world power in musical art, three hotly contested questions have successively served as the crux of progress, namely, that of the American composer, of Indian music and other so-called "American folksongs," and of opera in the English language. None of these matters has yet come to final settlement, although each has had its quota of

influence upon the general situation. Thus the American composer, who can now not infrequently gain a hearing for his large orchestral works, and not in vain has knocked at the erstwhile closed doors of the opera houses, has made a place for himself in the musical world, though Uncle Sam has not wit enough to see precisely *what* place. Then certain of the critics still heathenishly rage against the adoption of Indian melodies and the Indian musical idiom by American composers, protesting and proving that there is nothing in it, while the composers, in increasing numbers and with increasing popular success, go on drawing upon this rich vein for one source of musical inspiration and color. At present the American musical

world is shaken by the appearance of a strange monster with two heads, "opera in English" and "English opera," certain authorities holding that at best it is a visionary beast such as might have been beheld by St. John upon Patmos, and others stoutly maintaining that a little cultivation would make it a valuable domestic animal.

Victor Herbert's opera "*Natoma*" assumes the burden of all three of these questions at a stroke. Mr. Herbert is not of American origin, it is true, but he has for so long identified himself with America, and has so sympathetically considered American requirements in the nature of his appeal, that he stands to-day nowhere else than with American composers. His opera is thus a touchstone, having at once the triple power to clarify in some measure the three questions that have caused so much confusion in national musical affairs.

Following immediately upon the heels of "*Natoma*" came also "*The Sacrifice*," an opera with text and music by Frederick S. Converse, an American, and which had its première at the Boston Opera House on March 3. It presents a striking parallelism with "*Natoma*" in respect of scenes and characters.

Mr. Herbert has had a varied and an interesting career. He comes of a distinctly artistic ancestry, being the grandson of Samuel Lover, of Dublin, Ireland, a man who won a reputation in three arts. Moreover, at his birth a gypsy fortune-teller had startling things to say of his future fame as a composer, and he would indeed be a man of little spirit who refused to live up to such a romantic circumstance. At the age of seven the young Herbert was taken to Germany, where he shortly afterwards developed with phenomenal rapidity as a 'cellist, subsequently making a successful concert tour of Europe.

Being offered a position in the Royal Court Orchestra at Stuttgart, Herbert took up his residence there, and pursued his studies in composition with Max Seifritz. During this period he composed his well-known 'cello concerto, and, in rapid succession, many other works of serious caliber. In 1886 Mr. Herbert and his wife, who was the prima-donna at the Royal Theater, accepted engagements at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York.

Among the other posts held by Mr. Herbert was that of assistant conductor to Anton Seidl and afterwards to Theodore Thomas, conductor of the 22d Regiment Band, succeeding Patrick Gilmore, and conductor of the Pittsburg Orchestra.

It was William MacDonald, of the Bostonians, who first turned the composer's attention to light opera, in which field he has made so phenomenal a record. Among his twenty or more successful light operas are "*The Serenade*," "*The Wizard of the Nile*," "*The Fortune Teller*," "*The Ameer*," "*It Happened in Nordland*," "*Babes in Toyland*," "*Mlle. Modiste*," and "*The Red Mill*." A symphonic poem, "*Hero and Leander*," is one of his more serious compositions, which number choruses, cantatas, orchestral pieces and suites, and other works.

The story of "*Natoma*" concerns itself with a California Indian girl who, by killing the would-be abductor of her mistress, saves her for the man whom she herself loves, and stoically renounces her own passion.

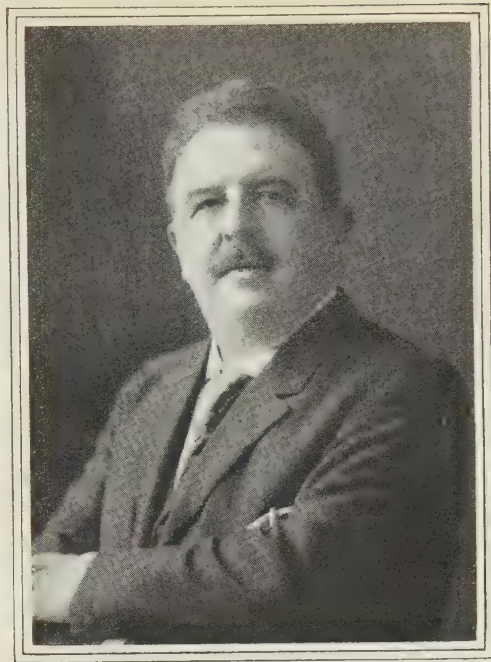
Act I shows the ceremonial home-coming of *Barbara* from convent school to the hacienda of her father, *Don Francisco*, of the old Spanish régime, on the island of Santa Cruz. *Lieutenant Paul Merrill*, of the U. S. Brig *Liberty*, trifles with the passions of *Natoma*, and he and *Barbara* love at first sight. A Spanish lover, *Alvarado*, is repulsed, and with *Castro*, a half-breed, plots vengeance. At the Fiesta on the following day before the Santa Barbara mission, represented in Act II, *Barbara* again repulses *Alvarado*, by throwing down his hat, which has been placed upon her head according to the custom of a traditional dance. *Castro* bids for a partner in the "dagger dance," and *Natoma* responds, but, watching her chance, stabs *Alvarado*, who is attempting to abduct *Barbara*, instead of *Castro*. *Father Peralta* comes from the church, quells the excitement, and protects *Natoma*. Within the church, in Act III, *Natoma* is turned from further violent projects by the priest, and placing her amulet over the shoulders of *Barbara*, who attends service with *Paul*, she silently passes out with the nuns.

The Metropolitan Opera House wore festive and appropriate garb on the occasion of the first New York performance. American flags were draped on the boxes, the occupants of which arrived at an earlier hour than is customary for those who usually go late and depart early for after-theater suppers. Interest in the performance centered chiefly in the work of Mary Garden in the title rôle, and with reason, for although there are those who will consider the Indian girl created by the librettist and herself an impossible being, she nevertheless made the character a vehicle for the successful presentation of her unique and magnetic artistic

personality. Her voice, neither particularly beautiful nor flexible in itself, she used with charm, and often with telling dramatic and emotional power. And, greatly to her credit—though it should be so common a virtue as to fail of invoking praise—she enunciated her words with so proper a respect for their true sound that much of what she sang could be understood even in the remote parts of the house.

The first act of the opera provides *Natoma* with an impressive narrative concerning the origin of her people; the second a musically effective prayer to (for some unexplained reason) the alien god, "Manitou," and the sensational "dagger dance." Act III opens with an aria for Natoma ranging from the quietest to the most violent emotions, and musically the greatest achievement of the opera. Miss Garden made the most of these major opportunities, and in the last mentioned rose to a memorable height of sustained emotional power.

The unsympathetic rôle of *Lieutenant Paul Merrill* was sung by John MacCormack in a voice of pleasing quality, though not at all times sufficiently strong to cope with the orchestral tone and the size of the house. Mario Sammarco, as *Alvarado*, was satisfactory in power and quality of tone, and good



VICTOR HERBERT, THE COMPOSER

in enunciation. Lillian Grenville's *Barbara* might have pleased as a light opera character in a smaller house. Gustave Huberdeau and Hector Dufranne, as *Don Francisco* and *Father Peralta*, carried their rôles with vocal, linguistic, and dramatic understanding, as did Frank Preisch in the slight rôle of *Castro*. Armand Crabbe's sympathetic voice was heard to good advantage in the rôle of *Pico*, who sings the "Vaquero's Song."

Many were the felicitations extended to the principals, the composer and librettist, conductor Campanini and manager Andreas Dippel, after the several acts and at the close of the opera. They were called out by ones, twos, threes, and by the half-dozen, time and time again, to acknowledge the applause of the audience. The temper of the audience during the performance was sympathetic, interestedly alert, and sometimes enthusiastic, as at the dramatically and musically stirring close of the second act, with its tense passions and thrilling "dagger dance."

In composing the grand opera "*Natoma*," Mr. Herbert, already famous as the composer of many of the most popular light operas of the day, removes his activities from the field of popular stage entertainment, as commonly understood, to a field which it is customary to view from the standpoint of musical art, despite the fact that an unwitting cynic recently gained newspaper immor-



MARY GARDEN AS "NATOMA"

talities by speaking of "grand opera and music." It has also been customary to speak of "composers and light opera composers," but while Mr. Herbert is known to be the composer of serious orchestral works not sufficiently known to the public, he now first writes himself down with sweeping publicity as belonging to the former class. Moreover, he does so with large claims to success.

The truest appreciators of Mr. Herbert's light operas have long remarked in them a quality of ingenuity, taste, and ability, which has given them a distinction above that of many works supposed to be in the same class. It is not surprising, therefore, to find him transferring that ability to the more serious forms of writing. In one sense in particular, his evolution gives him an advantage over those who have taken themselves seriously, or overseriously, from the start. Emerging from the field where spontaneity, freshness, immediateness of appeal constitute the *sine qua non* of music writing, he brings this sense of freshness with him into his more serious effort, which thus achieves a buoyancy and elasticity, a rhythmic dash, too often lacking in the work of those who from the beginning have been trained to a more involved and studious style. A spontaneous artistic flight upward from the natural melodic subsoil of music necessarily brings with it a greater invigoration than the too often heavy-winged endeavor to sustain a high flight from the point where the great masters left off. There is thus a lesson for many American composers in Mr. Herbert's latest work, and the virtue indicated in "Natoma" compensates in large measure for the undeniable flavor of light opera which is to be noticed in the work. This flavor becomes most pronounced in the "Vaquero's Song" in the festivities of Act II, where a Spanish rhythm, broadly treated, stands boldly and rather impudently forth from the less primitive musical context. The "music-drama" idea, handed down to us by Wagner, with its principle of unbroken and unbreakable dramatic continuity, was here thrown to the winds. The audience, for the moment finding itself back in the field of comic opera, or at least of old-fashioned opera, broke into applause and interrupted the act for the sake of gaining a repetition of the number. Much more impressive, tonally, was the choral climax of the festivities, but it is of particular interest to note that the unalloyed barbaric rhythm of the "Vaquero's Song" counted for much more with the audience than sheer tonal mass as in the climax. One need not probe deep

beneath the veneer of civilization to find the savage.

The music of "Natoma" is in two general styles, that of the freely treated aria and free musical declamation of the type established by Puccini. Beyond these, the *tune* finds occasional place, and there is the concerted vocal writing of the choruses. Musical declamation is the predominating style, and is supported by an orchestral accompaniment in which liberal use of "leading motives" is made. Some of these are brief, after the Wagnerian manner, and some present more expanded melodic ideas. The composer has not been uninfluenced by Puccini in the nature of his thematic treatment and harmonic style, although in the latter respect particularly he is led to the establishment and generous employment of an idiom suggested by the nature of American Indian melodies. The vocal writing of *Natoma's* part is also subtly and cleverly characterized throughout by certain considerations of Indian melody, through which the audience gains Indian musical suggestiveness from the singer, as well as from the orchestra, without the composer having made a too serious departure from familiar styles of vocal writing.

The quality of musical thought throughout the opera is in general fresh, vigorous, and characteristic. Moreover, the composer shows himself capable of subtleties for which the field of comic opera writing could give him little or no scope. There is true musical impulse behind the development of the themes, and the music is everywhere straightforward and logical. Where the composer wishes to produce an effect of mystery, as where *Natoma*, in Act I, tells of the origin of her forefathers in the clouds, he inclines to resort to the harmonic scheme contributed to the world's music by the modern Frenchmen. Where the text has lyrical qualities of rhythm, Mr. Herbert is at his best in the music. He is hampered, however, by that great part of the text which is written in a totally unrhymic prose, which would be the despair of the musician were he really dependent on it for musical inspiration. Fortunately, Mr. Herbert is not. He composes from his sense of the musical needs of the scene, and does the best that can be done for the words. He cannot at all times, however, free his musical wings from the burden of the text. There should be no line of the text of a grand opera, or of any opera, which does not have its rhythmic as well as its thought significance.

If there is one way more than another in which the composer's sojourn in the field of

light opera has militated against him in this first essay in grand opera, it lies in his having habituated himself to the less deep-breathed style required for the lighter forms of opera. He achieves many moments of impressiveness, of dramatic intensity, of minor climax, but the necessary relaxation between them is of a nature to prevent them from contributing to an entire act sufficiently broad and cumulative in its outlines. As a man in the lobby said, "it is like a string of pearls, on a string that is too long." It is quite possible that the text is equally responsible, perhaps more so, for this circumstance.

The orchestral garment in which Mr. Herbert has clothed his musical thoughts is of rich color and skillful weave. The score is nothing less than masterly. The first part of Act I is rather over-lightly scored, and gives at first the impression that the composer has overestimated the power of the instruments and underestimated the size of the house. It is apparent later that this must have been done purposefully, for the sake of climax. The composer's knowledge of the character and capacities of the instruments, and his intuitive certainty of orchestral effects previously untried by him, serve him well in making a score beautiful in tonal balance and color, and effective in a multitude of ways, according to the occasion. There are many fanciful details for the delectation of the careful observer, as where *Natoma* in Act I calls *Castro* "half-breed," and the orchestra for several moments spits out an echoing "half-breed!—half-breed!"—in unmistakable accents.

The text, which is by Joseph D. Redding, fulfils the conditions of opera in presenting scenes sufficiently remote from to-day, and capable of being invested with a romantic and a musical atmosphere. It presents characters fully capable of providing the necessary dramatic reactions. But its lyrics take one to the absurdities of old Italian opera and the literary schoolroom; its context, as indicated, is devoid of the necessary rhythmic structure; and it presents situations which must impress the beholder as absurd. There are many operatic conventions with which it is unprofitable to quarrel. But, leaving "music-drama" as conceived by Wagner aside, later writers of opera have shown that much may be accomplished even within those conventions by a proper devotion to dramatic verities and ideals. "*Natoma*" presents love scenes and an attempted abduction under impossible circumstances.

The question of Indian music in "*Natoma*" has been touched by Mr. Herbert in no equiv-



"BARBARA" (LILLIAN GRENVILLE) AND "DON FRANCISCO" (GUSTAVE HUBERDEAU) IN THE OPERA OF "*NATOMA*"

ocal way. His Indian themes, whether borrowed entire or simulated, are authentic in their quality. He has shown remarkable sympathy in devising a scheme of development for these themes which retains their peculiar character and "color," and his music in this *genre* is both impressive and convincing. Three melodies of Indian character in particular are employed; one, a gentle theme suggesting *Natoma's* love; another of stern character indicating her Indian nature; and the third the highly barbaric "dagger dance." The first two are extensively and effectively employed throughout the opera.

It is not to be overhastily admitted that the use of Indian music in "*Natoma*" is the greatest which can be made of it. It can, however, be said that Mr. Herbert's successful and convincing employment of it is a thorough justification of the arduous and much-contested development of this department of American music, and that it is the most important example of it on a large scale yet placed before the American people.

As to the question of grand opera in the English language, it is the belief of the writer that it cannot become a vital question until it shall be, proportionately, as common for



ALICE NIELSEN AS "CHONITA" IN "THE SACRIFICE";
THE NEW OPERA BY CONVERSE

Americans to produce opera in their own language for their own people as it is now for them to produce and sing songs in that language. As long as opera is wholly exotic, it falls under the laws of exotics. Now that American librettists and composers are apparently upon the dawn of a liberal operatic productivity and hearing, the question assumes living significance. In proportion as opera in the vernacular by native writers becomes a common form of entertainment in America, the people will be likely to want to hear many of the old operas in English, and will probably demand such a hearing. Just in so far as "Natoma" proves to be a lasting success, or leads to future lasting successes, just so far is it efficient in promoting the cause of grand opera in the English language.

COMPOSER CONVERSE AND HIS WORK

Mr. Frederick S. Converse, a native of Massachusetts, whose opera, "The Sacrifice," was performed last month under brilliant auspices at the Boston Opera House, began his studies in composition at Harvard University. He graduated with highest honors in his chosen studies in 1893, going to Munich,

where he was no less successful at the Royal School of Music. The story of his life is the story of steady work at composition, interrupted for a time by taking up the work of instruction at the Harvard Music School.

His academic experiences influenced strongly his first compositions, the most important of which were a sonata for violin and piano, and a symphony in D. Sympathies with the romantic school, however, soon deflected his artistic tendency, and, following in the footsteps of Liszt and Strauss, he wrote a number of symphonic poems, among them "The Festival of Pan," "Endymion's Narrative," and "The Mystic Trumpeter," the latter after the poem of Walt Whitman. His obvious devotion to the work of the poet Keats led him also to compose a vocal and orchestral setting of "La Belle Dame Sans Merci." All of these works, as well as others, have had hearings through the Boston Sym-



FLORENCIO CONSTANTINO AS "BERNAL" IN "THE SACRIFICE"

phony Orchestra and other of the principal American orchestras.

The theme of his earlier symbolistic opera, "The Pipe of Desire," takes one back into Celtic fairy lore. It treats of a magic pipe which can confer upon its player the fulfilment of his fondest desire, though at the price of tragedy.

"The Sacrifice" treats of the conflict between the Spanish settlers of Southern California and the "Gringos," in 1846. *Bernal*, a Mexican officer, and *Captain Burton*, of the American forces, are rivals for the hand of *Chonita*, a young Mexican lady, who loves the former. The action, first in the garden of *Chonita's* home, then in the mission, and subsequently in *Chonita's* bedchamber, brings about a situation in which *Burton*, who holds *Bernal* as a condemned spy, is ready to give him up to save *Chonita*, who cannot survive *Bernal's* execution, if he can find a way to do so consistent with military honor. He accomplishes this by allowing himself to be killed by a party of attacking Spaniards whom he might have successfully resisted.

Mr. Converse is known as the composer of the one-act opera, "The Pipe of Desire," a symbolistic and mystical piece, as far removed from "The Sacrifice" in character as could well be imagined. His former opera, while showing high musicianship, was universally felt to be incomprehensible to audiences. The new opera may be regarded as the reaction from an extreme idealistic tendency, on the part of the composer, and an endeavor to make a more direct dramatic and human appeal. In this he is felt to have succeeded in a noteworthy manner in his third act, but to have fallen short of it in the first two.

From the evidence of the text, with the lyrics of which Mr. John Macy has given assistance, it appears to have been the composer's design to portray the loves of the three principal characters, against a background of racial struggle, deepened by a sense of inevitability and fate. The latter coloring is contributed in large measure by *Tomasa*, the old Indian woman, who assumes somewhat the character of a seer. Mr. Converse, in his construction of the text, has been at some pains to accentuate this aspect of her character, a procedure which has resulted in more distinctly characterizing her than the other persons in the drama, while making her, in some respects, at the same time the most anomalous.

In short, a kind of psychological background appears to have been planned, against which the chief characters and their actions should stand vividly forth. Mr. H. T.



MR. FREDERICK CONVERSE
(Composer of "The Sacrifice")

Parker, writing in the *Boston Transcript*, finds the conception carried out with insufficient completeness, and attributes the fault to the author's inability to coördinate properly the large elements in his plan, and to an insufficiently developed power of musical characterization.

A deeper glance might bring the whole matter back to the question of the literary characterization of the persons in the drama, as revealed by an examination of the text. The book shows abundant evidence of a certain kind of literary taste and skill. But literary technic, *per se*, is something very different from the technic of verse especially intended as the text of a music drama. In the first place, Mr. Converse's characters, as the book reveals them, are not specific individuals, but only general types,—the American officer capable of noble impulses, the passionate Mexican, the charming Spanish girl, and so on. Their speech is such as any other of their type might employ; in fact it

is sufficiently vague and general to be not infrequently interchangeable among them. For dramatic purposes, character must cut more incisively. As presented in the text, Mr. Converse's characters could scarcely stimulate high musical characterization. The difficulty here is not with the musician, but with the poet; not with coördination, but with character drawing. Had the old Indian woman's character as seer been outlined in her speech as definitely and individually as a Cruikshank or a Goya would have drawn it in black and white, Mr. Parkers' objection would not have arisen. An even partially accurate musical delineation, if the character be drawn with sufficient individuality of outline in the first place, will carry the necessary human, dramatic, and "atmospheric" message. A single moment of intensely poignant characterization of *Tomasa* as seer would accomplish much more toward establishing the requisite dramatic atmosphere than any amount of diluted seership spread out over

whole scenes and acts. And likewise the other characters, similarly treated, would stand forth with more vividness, and relieve the drama of Mr. Parker's further charge of lack of emotional variety.

The anomaly noted in the character of *Tomasa* is analogous to that attributable to the character of *Natoma*, namely, an impossible religious psychology. The religion of *Tomasa* approaches vastly too nearly that of her Mexican mistress. Even if the Indian can be brought to accept the white man's God (which is doubtful, as it is impossible for him to conceive Him), it is extremely doubtful if he can ever be brought to conceive of "loving" Him. The Indian instinctively, in his deepest self, fears uncomprehended powers of a superhuman nature.

A similar criticism might be offered upon the religious psychology of the other characters. It is something more than difficult to conceive of a young Catholic Spanish woman extolling the delights of love to a priest, and, as well, to find two soldiers of that rough land and epoch speaking so constantly of God, when in reality they would undoubtedly have been swearing.

It is to be remembered, nevertheless, that "The Sacrifice" is a great step beyond "The Pipe of Desire" in directness. And in view of the fact that the author is the possessor of literary ideals, it is hoped and expected that he will turn them to more effective dramatic purpose in future operas.

As with all Mr. Converse's work in composition, the music of "The Sacrifice" exhibits intellectual force and solid qualities of structure. Its plan involves the use of "leading motives," as does that of "*Natoma*," although they are somewhat sparingly used, and are not emphasized or blazoned forth in a way to make a vivid impression on the retina of the ear. Among the most impressive moments of the score are those of the sunrise and the lovers' meeting in Act III. The opera contains hints of Indian music, and suggestions of patriotic songs.

Mr. Converse would seem to be at a stage of his development where his capacity for musical structure and orchestral effectiveness still outweigh his power of essentially dramatic musical utterance.

Years ago Walt Whitman wrote

In the need of songs, philosophy, an appropriate native grand opera, shipcraft, any craft, He or she is greatest who contributes the greatest original practical example.

To-day the principle, in its operatic bearing, is called into lively action.



RAMON BLANCHART AS "CAPTAIN BURTON" IN
"THE SACRIFICE"



MANUAL TRAINING FOR ONE OF THE "UNGRADED CLASSES" OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC SCHOOLS

(See page 453)

DEFECTIVE CHILDREN IN SCHOOL: A SOCIAL SAFEGUARD

BY OLIVIA HOWARD DUNBAR

A YOUNG woman having charge of the so-called "ungraded class" in one of the public schools on New York's East Side was sought out recently by a mother whose tears and lamentations evidenced her deep distress.

"What is it you have done to my Harry?" the woman wailed. "Every day of his life he runs away from me and goes to school. Always they have told me that child is crazy and I would not believe them! Now I see for myself he is crazy, or I could sometimes keep him away from school!"

A few weeks earlier Harry had been subjected to a series of tests, classified as mentally and physically "defective," and thereupon assigned a place in a newly formed special class. During five or six years previous to this he had been submitted to the common injustice of being forced into competition with

normal children. This meant derision on the part of his schoolmates, continual combats with his teachers, and retrogression rather than progress for the unhappy boy himself,—with, of course, a constant and unconquerable tendency toward truancy. Suddenly he found himself in a schoolroom with but fourteen other children,—the classes are limited to fifteen. Some were more, some less developed than he, but all were, in the rather pitiful colloquialism, "crazy." Here there were pleasant, interesting things to do all day long, and nobody imposed the torture of keeping still while one did them. A friendly person who was called a teacher but who didn't act like one, suggested, persuaded, encouraged, praised, but never coerced or punished. School therefore promptly became for Harry a place one had to be coaxed to

leave. Very naturally his mother believed that the teacher had "put a spell" upon her unfortunate child, and it was no easy matter to explain to her that he was for the first time being scientifically taught, and that he liked it.

Instances of this sort occur continually. A teacher often has to leave her work to pacify an angry mother whose child has been told to stay at home and help with housework, but has obeyed the irresistible lure and run to school. Jewish parents have repeatedly to be consoled because their children obstinately evade observance of the religious festivals in order not to miss a day of this new and engrossing variety of education. All the symptoms of truancy, in short, that these children exhibit are of a quaintly reversed order. Perhaps no children have ever before regarded school as so great a privilege.

A grown-up person who held the ancient schoolroom traditions firmly in mind would be likely to feel on visiting a class for defectives that he was entering topsy-turvydom. Every respectable educational pillar would appear to him to have been torn down. He would look for silence and immobility; for absolute obedience to Authority seated on a platform; for confinement between a desk and a hard chair, both screwed tight to the floor;—and he would find nothing of the sort. There might not even be a book in sight, although most of the children do learn to read. But a book is certainly the most formidable object that would be encountered. For furnishings there are movable tables and movable cane-seated chairs, workbenches fitted with tools, a sand-bench, a miscellany of kindergarten material, window-boxes with growing plants. If this background is informal, the pedagogical atmosphere is far more so. Suppose, for instance, that a child flatly refuses to accede to a suggestion from the teacher. The conservative visitor looks to see prompt retribution inflicted. What he does see is that the teacher entirely ignores the refusal and passes on to another pupil. But the incredible, the revolutionary thing, from the older standpoint, is a schoolroom without silence. Speech, laughter, and freedom of motion are not forbidden these children. They are even encouraged; for it is the apathetic cases that cause the most anxiety. Even if a child should be excessively tumultuous, he would not be reproved. He would merely overhear the teacher praising a child of more controlled behavior. Thus unconsciously he would come to form a standard and adapt himself to it.

NEW YORK'S SPECIAL CLASSES

As a development of the past ten years, one hundred and ten such special classes are now maintained in connection with the public schools of New York City. Not only in the number of children thus cared for, but in the methods by which these abnormal cases are diagnosed, prescribed for, and classified, New York is very much ahead of any other American city. Miss Elizabeth Farrell, a woman of wide experience, is at the head of the entire department of ungraded classes. Miss Farrell and her associate, Dr. Isabella Smart, who admit that the equipment at their disposal is the best in the country, personally examine and test every child who is suggested by the teachers of the regular classes. Of course very many puzzling cases resolve themselves into a matter of eyes—defective vision—or adenoids. Obscure physical difficulties are treated by experienced physicians without any cost to the child. Cases where there are no physical complications are turned over to an ungraded class,—an experience that in three months is pretty sure to transform them.

It should be understood that these classes do not usually include merely backward children. On the other hand, absolutely hopeless cases are not admitted. But the idea is that every child who is to any degree educable, should to that degree be educated. Rooms are chosen for these classes in the public school buildings in order that the pupils who are set apart may not suffer from too marked a sense of difference and isolation, a certain amount of contact with normal children being considered desirable. The department is growing so rapidly and the need of specially equipped teachers has become so imperative that the Board of Education has decided to send thirty young women teachers to take a course at the New Jersey Training School at Vineland, the leading institution in the country for the study of abnormal psychology. It also expects to open this spring a special training school in Brooklyn. So far, the teachers of defective classes have been recruited—and with no little difficulty, for it is obvious that the work demands peculiar gifts, as well as special training—from the regular ranks.

VARIOUS AMERICAN EXPERIMENTS

In spite of what it has accomplished, New York was by no means the first American city to become interested in this work. It

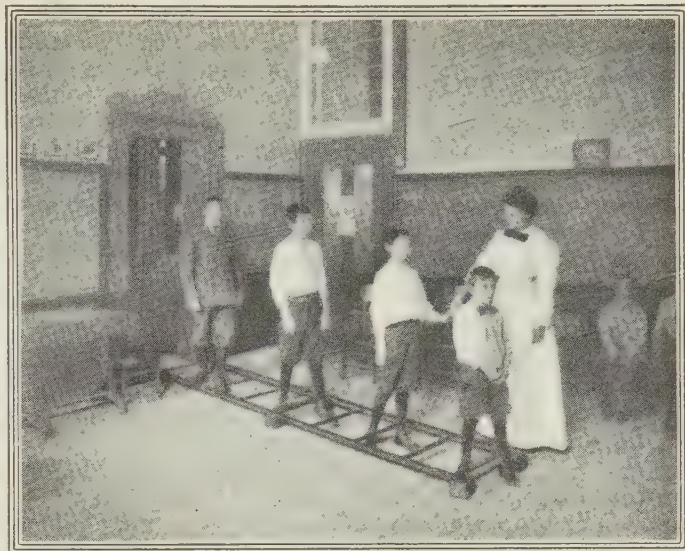
goes without saying that Germany was the first country to pay special attention to the important subject,—as far back as 1867. Other leading European countries soon followed. The first experiment of the sort in this country was made in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1875. In 1896 the first attempt to organize such work in the public schools was made in Providence, R. I. Since New York made its beginning, various other larger cities have made an effort to include the care of defectives in the public school system, but to a degree by no means commensurate with the need. Indeed, the efforts of Chicago, St. Louis, and San Francisco, for instance, have proportionately been excelled by smaller municipalities, such as Denver, Los Angeles, New Haven, Conn., Rochester, N. Y., and Worcester, Mass.

As recently as 1907, when Chicago made no provision for imbeciles or for subnormal children of the first degree,—that is, children who will not be able with special training to attain the equivalent of the fourth grade at fourteen years,—Los Angeles had twenty ungraded rooms for defectives of all kinds. Worcester has of course profited very much by the presence of Clark University, famous for its studies in child psychology, just as the defective children of Philadelphia now profit by the Psychological Clinic for Children connected with the University of Pennsylvania. It should not be forgotten, of course, that this clinic, ably developed by Dr. Lightner Witmer, owes its origin to a public school teacher's special interest in a defective child.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

How do the teachers to whom these unfortunate children are entrusted begin their miraculous work of regeneration? It may be taken for granted that the undertaking is not a bit easier than it sounds. Many of them, on being appointed, find that they are forced to learn their trade all over again.

"University study in abnormal psychology sounds well," one of these teachers confessed recently, "and of course it's intensely interesting; but it's really not of much direct help when one tackles the actual work! Of



GYMNASTICS FOR PUPILS OF "UNGRADED CLASSES"

all branches of education, this is the one where theories are the most misleading. The things that we need to know, absolutely cannot be learned from books and lectures. One has to discover one's own facts, evolve one's own methods, and then, most difficult of all, learn how to conceal them. Our noisy classrooms may not seem to be methodically conducted, but that is just the art of it. Method is really far more important with these unfortunate children than with normal ones, who learn in spite of our mistakes with them. But the abnormal child cannot learn unless he is handled in precisely the right fashion."

Not very much imagination is needed to see that the greater part of the special teacher's equipment must consist of patience, and patience in an almost divine degree. One teacher had reasons for believing that a boy in her class could be taught to write. Every day for a year, the boy made meaningless marks with his pencil. Every day the teacher encouraged him, stimulated his confidence in himself, and gave him the manual training that little by little developed his crippled brain. At the end of the year, the marks began miraculously to take the form of letters, and in time the child did indeed learn to write,—a wonderful testimony to his teacher's skill. Then again, almost all children, on entering these classes, seem sullen and ill-tempered. But the teacher knows that they have been made so by misunderstanding and ridicule, in many cases by cruelty and violence, and that defective children are always happy and affectionate

when they are given a chance. Part of her patience, therefore, has to be expended in restoring fifteen temperaments to a relatively peaceful and unharassed state. This feat is not impossible. It is performed over and over again. And the result is, of course, that these children cling to their teacher with intense devotion, as to their one defense in a world that must have come to seem to them pretty consistently infernal.

Such a teacher must also be a prompt and wise interpreter of juvenile action. There are obviously occasions where it would be easy to misjudge. Not many weeks ago, the teacher in charge of a newly assembled class talked repeatedly to her children about a fern she had ordered for the schoolroom, dwelling enthusiastically upon its beauty and the pleasure that might be taken in watching it grow. When, at last, the fern was delivered at the school, the children leaped, fifteen strong, to investigate it, but after one look at the plant, turned upon the florist's man with fluent outbursts of profanity. An inexperienced teacher might easily have been disheartened by this episode. But this young woman understood from it that she had been even more successful than she had hoped—that she had aroused an intense and hungry interest that an object so sedate as a fern was utterly inadequate to gratify. The children had expected something at least as brilliant as a geranium or tiger lily, and their disappointment was expressed in the only terms with which they were familiar, the terms they had heard daily all their lives.

And this suggests the parenthesis that the greatest obstacle in training these children consists in their home conditions,—which are, in most cases, conditions of brutalizing poverty and ignorance. Many of the children have been underfed and ill-used since their birth. Many of them are accustomed to the life of the streets, by night and day.

But even after the defective classes have been taught all they can learn, and their teachers have grown wise in accomplishing it, the usefulness of these laboratories is not exhausted. For there is also to be considered the application of what is discovered here to the needs of the normal child. For instance, certain teachers have been bold enough to speculate whether, if school can be made a heaven, and a very profitable heaven, for the defective child, the normal one cannot by similar methods at least be led to tolerate it. Truancy is unknown in the defective classes. Cannot the principles that prevent it be applied to the education of normal chil-

dren, who at present know no keener joy than that of running away from school? Also, these teachers ask, does there really exist a hopelessly "bad boy"? Individual attention successfully overcomes the apparent incorrigibility of defective children. Why not apply similar methods to children who are, after all, much easier to deal with? Moreover, much light has been thrown by this work upon all adolescent mental processes. As one of the teachers explained, it is not easy to follow the operations of a mind that is working as rapidly as an express train,—but when this speed, as in the case of the defective, is slowed down, the mental machinery can be studied with comparative ease. So it is the problem of education as a whole that is being more or less consciously worked out in these classrooms.

One of the particularly successful of New York's special teachers, Miss Meta Louise Anderson, was loaned this year to the Newark schools, where the system of defective classes is being initiated, and where it is her complex function to show the newly appointed teachers how to teach their apparently ineducable pupils. Being a high enthusiast, Miss Anderson likes nothing better than the baffling difficulties of this enterprise. The first step is to test the recommended cases, and, inasmuch as there is not room for all, to eliminate those less definitely in need of special training. The next move is to persuade the teachers and children not to be afraid of each other; and the foundation is laid. There are at first a good many serious misconceptions on both sides. After a few weeks of struggle, one of the younger teachers confided with some pride to Miss Anderson that her class was becoming quieter.

"But don't you know that's the worst thing that could happen!" Miss Anderson exclaimed. "That's the very trouble with them,—over-expression. First they must be taught expression,—let them shout, if they want to. Self-control will come later on."

Next, the teachers have to be encouraged to develop freely their own resourcefulness. A very natural tendency on the part of an inexperienced teacher would be to keep her class where she knew it was safe, rather than to adventure among unfamiliar conditions. But they are shown that this caution is not necessary. Three classes, numbering forty-five children in all, were taken the other day for an outing to the woods, the excursion being made by trolley and involving several transfers. Before starting, the inspired precaution was taken of placing the more developed

children in charge of those relatively helpless. This worked perfectly and the expedition was an entire success. But projects far more difficult than this, such as taking a class to visit the toy department of a great shop, are often carried through without mishap. In general, it is perfectly clear that the children have the keenest pleasure in these experiments. They do not suffer greatly from self-consciousness; and it was a very unusual cloud that had troubled the consciousness of the little girl who came to her teacher and begged with pitiful seriousness that the next time they were taken out, Joseph, a conspicuously abnormal child, might be left behind. "Because, if he goes, people look at us so!"

GETTING RID OF ROUTINE

It is not hard to see why, as Dr. Andrew Edson has pointed out, the mere offer of a special salary is not enough to tempt women teachers into this special work. It goes without saying that courage and faith are necessary, but a pretty thorough renunciation of almost all pedagogical habits and prejudices is also involved. As Miss Anderson has shrewdly observed, many of the hard-and-fast laws that have governed school life have really been for the convenience of the teacher, rather than the good of the pupil. Routine, to a teacher, is the paramount convenience. And routine, in this work, is the first thing to be cast aside. All notions of authority and discipline are likewise discarded at the threshold of these classrooms. A genuinely scientific interest in psychology, a human tenderness for the stumbling and imperfectly equipped, a stoutly durable set of nerves, and an unflinching ready-wittedness are some of the qualifications demanded by a work for which, in the nature of the case, there can be no adequate reward.

ADVANTAGES OF THE NEW SYSTEM

Undoubtedly there are skeptical onlookers here and there who will ask, as is asked of all innovations, what this new and spreading system amounts to, and how much, at its utmost, it can accomplish for the city. The question happens in this case not to be difficult to answer.

The first good that such a system accomplishes is a thorough medical inspection of all doubtful cases in the schools, with the resultant weeding out of institutional cases, and with its incidental treatment of eyes, throats, etc.

The second good consists in the benefit to the normal children of having defective cases removed from the regular classrooms.

Beyond this, there is definite and measurable advantage for the defectives themselves. As far as mental training is concerned, experienced teachers say that the most that can ever be done for a defective human being, under the most fortunate circumstances, is to bring him to what is rated as the mental development of twelve years. Probably in the public schools, with the serious handicaps of wrong home influences, undernourishment, and so on, this is rarely if ever done. The most hopeful cases are taught to read simple English, and are able to master arithmetic through multiplication. It is interesting to note that the process of division is a stage beyond the mind of a defective. They are also taught as far as possible to speak plainly, as most children enter these classes with imperfect articulation.

VALUE OF MANUAL TRAINING

But, quite naturally, their intellectual program is very simple, and it is made possible at all only through the effects of a great deal of manual training, at which they are surprisingly apt. Almost every one of them, their teachers say, is capable of being put at a trade. Some children who had been under a special teacher's care for only two months were found the other day producing thoroughly practical and coherent results from the tools and materials that had been supplied them. One boy had cut out three thin pieces of wood and constructed a toy sled, which he had afterward painted. The wood was evenly cut, the nails were driven with perfect precision, and the whole performance was worthy of an intelligent adult.

Here, then, is a positive power that can be developed in these children, and that should, of course, be used;—but used with knowledge and discretion, inasmuch as their teachers intimate that in all their accomplishment, these children build better than they know. They do not reason about their work, and it may not be taken for granted that a boy who can make a sled can tell you how he has made it. It is of course essential that this fact should be realized, to prevent injustice. In one training-school, for instance, it was found that children who were apt at domestic work and who had displayed an amazing proficiency in "making" single beds, were utterly at a loss when confronted with an unmade double bed. This fact did not lessen

the value of the earlier achievement; it merely illustrated afresh the imperative need of guidance that these human beings have. Then there are cases where children can only be developed in the direction of some one faculty that is often discovered by accident. A boy in the public schools of New York seemed absolutely ineducable except for having an extraordinary and even beautiful sense of order. His efficiency in rearranging an untidy room amounted almost to a talent. He could have been made useful and happy by a further training of this faculty. Another child, a little girl in the New Jersey Training School, baffled every effort, until a younger child was placed in her care. This bred a maternal emotion that so stimulated her faculties that for years she capably and devotedly tended her charge; and when it died, her grief was that of a bereaved mother.

THE MORAL EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVES

But mental and manual attainments are after all considered practically prefatory to the real work that must be done with defectives. It is moral training that these children, with their weak wills and highly suggestible natures, most need. An untrained defective is an appalling danger to a community, and unfortunately this danger is fairly frequent, since defectives constitute what is variously estimated as from one to three per cent. of the population of every city. But the right teaching,—even five hours a day spent in the care of a special teacher,—can, it is believed, guarantee practical immunity from serious harm, both to the child himself and to the society that he would otherwise menace,—up to the age of sixteen. Beyond this age, the schools make no provision for defectives.

However, those who best understand the subject insist that the story does not end here. It is obviously too much to ask of the schools that they shall give the defective child permanent moral stability. And since this cannot be done, it is believed that the only wise course is the segregation of most

adult defectives. Practically all the men and women who have guided the work up to this point advocate this course and insist that only thus can the two great dangers be avoided,—that of the defective becoming a prey of the shrewd criminal, and that of his marrying and becoming a parent. At present, sufficient facilities for such segregation naturally do not exist. But it has been shown that an institution for adult defectives can be self-supporting, inasmuch as they adapt themselves readily to practical occupations, especially domestic work and agriculture. Moreover, the helpless cases are always best committed to the care of defectives of a higher grade, who unfailingly, it is said, take a great pleasure and pride in the responsibility. The State treasuries would therefore not be drained by the indefinite multiplication of such homes.

As matters stand at present, the ignorance of parents and a lack of necessary legislation present discouraging barriers to this aspect of the work. Almost universally do parents confess a desire to see their defective children married; and it may be taken for granted that they do what they can to promote this social crime. When the parents are poor as well as ignorant, they have a well-known custom of withdrawing a child from an institution as soon as he is committed to it, in order that they may put him at factory work and profit by his wages. It is said by the public school teachers that parents, whenever they can, withdraw their children from the special classes for the same purpose. That is to say, the personal liberty of the defective is still absolutely uninvaded by law, while the liberty of the sick and the insane is promptly restricted. As Miss Farrell points out, the degree of liberty granted to a human being who may possibly become a public menace is a matter to be decided by competent authorities, rather than by too fond or too avaricious relatives. A group of social workers are now agitating for legislation that shall bring the defective much more definitely within the authoritative charge of the State, but the desired end is not yet in sight.





SERVING LUNCHES AT COST TO CITY SCHOOL CHILDREN

(In New York the equipment is provided by the Board of Education and the serving and cleaning up is done by pupils who receive meals in exchange for their work)

THE VITAL QUESTION OF SCHOOL LUNCHES

BY MARY JOSEPHINE MAYER

THAT large numbers of school children are undernourished is a statement which no longer admits of dispute. The fact has long been recognized and dealt with in Europe, and now we of the United States are waking up to conditions that cry aloud for action. At a moderate estimate, probably 2,000,000 of our children between the ages of five and fourteen years (nearly 12 per cent. of the total number of that age) are underfed. A recent investigation in New York City warranted the assumption that, at a low estimate, 10 per cent. of our school children suffer from malnutrition.

Do we, I wonder, grasp the full significance of this fact? The pity of it is obvious; but, unfortunately, the suffering of the individual child is only one aspect of a many-sided evil that threatens the community at more than one vulnerable point. Food, one expert tells us, is at the base of most of the evils of child degeneracy. Poor and inappropriate food, says another, is responsible for more ill health, classroom stupidity, and backwardness than

any other one injurious influence of modern city life. And again, one of the most striking things about undernourished children is their vulnerability. They "take" everything, and offer very little resistance to any acute infectious disease which they may contract.

It is not difficult to count the ultimate cost to society of these underfed children—in other words, the degenerate, the mentally defective, the tubercular, who form so large a percentage of the total child population of our modern city. The degenerate child, beginning as a moral canker among its playmates, ends by taking the city's money for its support in reformatories and prisons. The children who catch every disease spread these diseases broadcast before they themselves are gathered into hospitals—at the expense of the community. The tubercular, the anemic, the mentally deficient, take two years to do one year's work, or are taught in special classes; all of which means extra expenditure of city money. In every case we are confronted with the expense to the community—

expense in health, in morals, in money—of the undernourished child.

POSSIBLE INJUSTICE IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION

But in emphasizing the social aspect of the problem, we must not forget the injustice to the individual child of subjecting it, when undernourished, to the curriculum of the public schools. Professor Darroch, in his book "The Children," says: "To endeavor to educate the persistently underfed children of our slums is to do them a twofold injury. By the exercises of the school we use up, in many cases, the small store of energy lodged in the brain and nervous system of the child, and leave nothing either for the repair of the nervous system or for the growth of the body generally. At the same time that we neglect the nutrition of his body we expend an increasing yearly sum on the so-called education of his mind." An experiment undertaken in Bradford, England, in 1906, forcibly illustrates this point. Forty children, chosen from the poorest class, were weighed at regular intervals for five school weeks, and found to gain, on an average, one ounce a week,—a yearly gain of three pounds and four ounces. These same children, during a vacation of ten days, freed from the strain of school work, gained on an average half a pound apiece,—a yearly gain of a little over eighteen pounds. In the face of facts such as these we may well ask, Have we the right to inflict upon the undernourished child the further injury of a system of compulsory education?

EUROPE'S EXPERIENCE IN SCHOOL FEEDING

Most European countries have answered this question in the negative. On the Continent the feeding of school children is an old and tried institution. As far back as 1799, the city of Munich maintained soup kitchens to which hungry children were sent from the schools. But it is in the past twenty years that the movement has taken on a national character in practically all European countries. Great Britain, Holland, and Switzerland have even passed laws dealing with the feeding of school children, and in Germany and Denmark a campaign for similar legislation is being carried on.

Methods vary with the needs of different countries and cities. In France a hot lunch is served to each child for about three cents. For those who cannot afford to pay there is a system of free tickets, supplied in such a way that no one knows which children pay

and which do not. In Germany it is more often the practice to give breakfast, consisting of warm milk and a roll, which is free to all who, after careful investigation, are found unable to pay. In Christiania, Trondhjem, and a number of other Norwegian cities, all children who care to avail themselves of it are supplied free with a nutritious midday meal; and in the little city of Vercelli, Italy, school meals are not only provided free, but are made as compulsory as are the classes. In England, since the passage of the Provision of Meals Act in 1906, school boards may appropriate funds for the buildings and equipment necessary for feeding children, and may coöperate with voluntary organizations in serving the food. Here, as in France, lunch is commonly the meal provided, and the necessitous child is fed free.

The significance of all this for us lies in the fact that every European country which has tried school feeding as an experiment, often in the teeth of opposition, has retained it as an institution. The step has been abundantly justified by its results. Dr. Collie, Medical Inspector of the London School Committee, says: "Mental disability is not only preventable, but in many cases curable. In large numbers of instances, after the careful attention and midday dinner of the special schools, the children are returned, after from sixteen to eighteen months, to the elementary schools with a new lease of mental vigor. Their brains have been starved and naturally fail to react to the ordinary methods of elementary teaching." And to choose one more testimony out of the abundance that confronts us, we will quote the words of a member of the Municipal Council of Trondhjem on the school meal system: "Although the scheme was bitterly opposed when first it was proposed by a small group of radicals and Socialists, it is now unanimously supported by all sections. Educationally we have found that it pays. It is possible now to educate children who before could not be educated because they were undernourished. The percentage of backward children has been greatly reduced. Eventually we believe that we can see in the system the gradual conquest of pauperism made possible."

LIKE CONDITIONS IN AMERICA

We of the United States are singularly slow to realize that practically the same conditions with which Europe has found it necessary to deal, are now confronting us; and, granted the conditions, we are afraid of the



PUPIL HELPERS "CLEANING UP" AFTER SERVING A SCHOOL LUNCH

obvious remedy. School feeding, it is urged, smacks of paternalism; it will pauperize; it will undermine parental responsibility and interfere with the prerogative of the home—and so on.

The fact is that objections such as these singularly miss the point, for the state, by its system of compulsory education, has already asserted its right to prepare the child for future citizenship. The question is, How much longer shall we ignore the plain fact that education can come only after bread? Whatever may be done to change conditions under which our children lack not only food, but other essentials of life, let us, the adults, do with all our might; but let us not forget that our work must be carried on by these same children, and that efficiency can never be coaxed by schooling out of underfed bodies. If only in the name of enlightened self-interest, let us not persist longer in the senseless and futile attempt to educate the undernourished child.

EXPERIMENTS IN MANY CITIES

Fortunately, there is evidence that we are beginning to realize the futility of our present methods, and experiments in the feeding of school children have been tried in many of our cities, from Texas to Massachusetts. Twelve years ago, in Philadelphia, a charitable organization began to serve penny lunches in schools in the poorer districts; and

this undertaking was repeated in Chicago in 1902; but it is only in the past two years that interest in the movement has become widespread.

LUNCHES SERVED AT COST

In most cases the meals are served entirely by private individuals or societies, but the schools often furnish the gas and equipment. After eight years of this sort of experimentation Chicago took a forward step, and, in the fall of 1910, its Board of Education appropriated \$1200 to start one-cent lunches in six schools in the poorer parts of the city. The lunch consists of a nourishing soup with bread, or of a sandwich, a bowl of milk, and a small piece of candy. All the cooking utensils are made in the manual training school, and the dishes are prepared by the cooking teachers and pupils. In this way the lunches are made self-supporting. In Philadelphia, where the movement is still a private enterprise, luncheons varying in cost from one to three cents are served in ten schools. The menus are planned by an expert dietitian, and one cent buys at least one hundred calories of food value. In Boston there are now twelve schools serving one- and two-cent lunches, and the price, by extreme care and economy on the part of the management, is made to cover the cost of the food. In a dozen or more other cities school meals are now proving their value; and in at least thirteen cities,



LUNCH ON A CITY SCHOOL ROOF

according to a recent report, the matter of school lunches is being considered, in many cases by the boards of education.

Our own experiment, in New York, was started in November, 1908, in Public School No. 51, on Forty-fourth Street, near Tenth Avenue; and in the following March lunches were opened in School No. 21, on Mott Street. The equipment,—stove, table, water and fire,—is furnished by the Board of Education. The administrative work and all deficit are supplied by the School Lunch Committee of the Public Education Association, an unofficial body of volunteers. Their aim is to furnish the undernourished children of our elementary schools with a hot lunch that shall contain one-third of the child's daily required food, and to make the price of this lunch (three cents) cover the cost of meals and cooking. The lunch consists of two thick slices of bread with a bowl of nourishing soup, and children who have eaten the regular meal may supplement it from a table of "penny extras" consisting of apples, cake, prunes, ginger-bread, etc. The serving and cleaning up are done by pupils who receive a meal in exchange for their work. Up to the present time there has been a gradually decreasing financial deficit, and enough has been done to demonstrate that when more children take the lunch, as is bound to occur, the receipts will cover the cost of the food. At present

nearly three hundred children are served with these nutritious lunches daily in the Mott Street school alone.

ONE-THIRD OF NEW YORK'S SCHOOL CHILDREN UNDERNOURISHED

That there is a crying need for this step, and that results have already justified the experiment, no one who has watched the work can doubt. Dr. Ira S. Wile, a member of the School Lunch Committee, after a wide investigation of the physical condition of New York school children, came to the conclusion that 35 per cent. of them are chronically undernourished. This does not mean that so large a percentage are in poverty, or that they are consciously hungry. It does mean that they eat innutritious food, and suffer from the too general use of tea and coffee.

But in the congested quarters a large number do actually lack sufficient food, and have no hot lunch provided for them. In some cases the mothers go out to work; in others, they find it unprofitable to stop the sweated labor of the tenements long enough to cook a midday meal. In most instances they give the children pennies to be spent as they please; and these pennies are usually given in exchange for candy, ice-cream, sandwiches, green pickles, and other unwholesome wares of the neighboring shops and pushcarts. Under these conditions it is easy to see why



THE POPULAR THREE-CENT LUNCH OF THE NEW YORK CITY SCHOOLS

(Nearly 300 children are served daily in one of the public schools)

the principal of the Mott Street school calls the three-cent hot lunch "not a relief, but an educative, measure." It trains children to eat wholesome food. In this same school the average gain in three months of the children taking the hot lunch was $10\frac{1}{2}$ ounces; the average gain of the children not taking the lunches was $3\frac{3}{4}$ ounces. This shows what even one nutritious meal on only five days out of seven can do for a child.

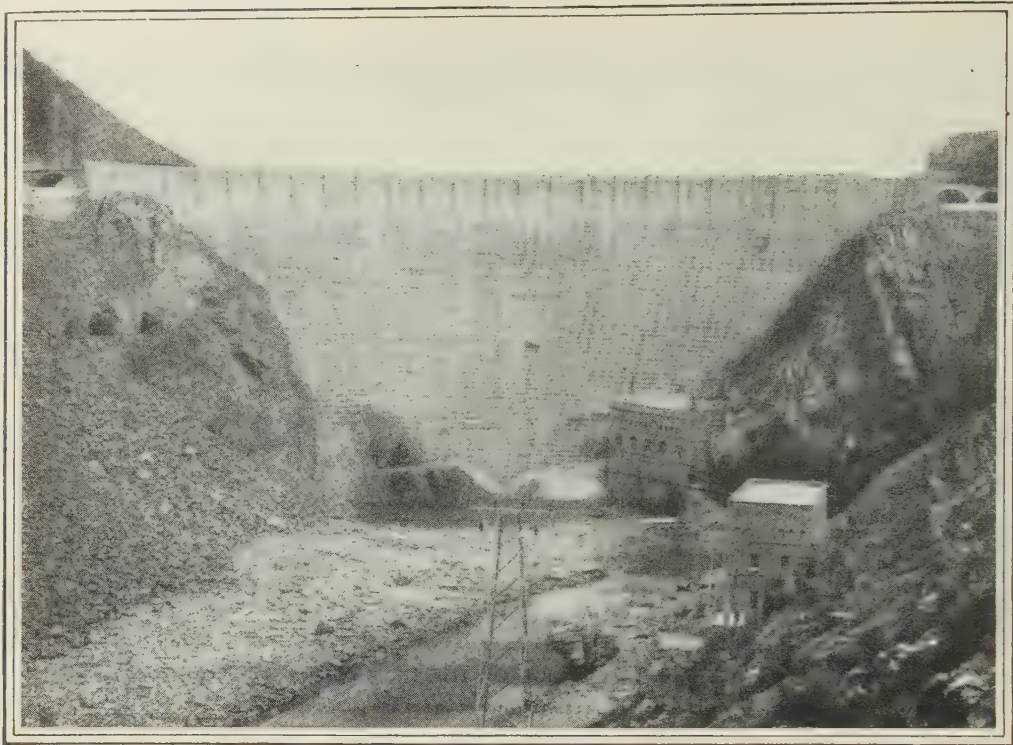
A STRICTLY EDUCATIONAL POLICY

But, in the last analysis, it is as an educational measure that we must regard the feeding of school children. The English Board of Education has expressed this idea in a circular to the local school authorities on the Provision of Meals act. "Its object is to insure that children attending public elementary schools shall, as far as possible, be no longer prevented by an insufficiency of suitable food from profiting by the education offered in our schools, and it aims at securing that, for this purpose, suitable meals shall be available just as much for those whose parents are in a

position to pay as for those to whom food must be given free of cost." These words show that in England they have faced a fact which we are slow to recognize,—namely, that wholesome food is inextricably a part of any system of compulsory education that is to be really effective.

That, in the medical examination of school children, and the teaching of personal hygiene, we have acknowledged the truth that education rests upon physical fitness, only emphasizes the inconsistency of stopping short of the supremely important item of food. Training in the proper knowledge of food values should be as much a part of the curriculum as are arithmetic and geography, and the best way to begin this training is to see that every child in our elementary schools gets at least one proper meal a day. That the practice, followed by the theory, of wholesome food in school will react upon the home, admits of no reasonable doubt. Let us hope that in the near future our boards of education will recognize the necessity of dealing adequately with this vital matter of school lunches.





UPSTREAM VIEW OF THE ROOSEVELT DAM

THE ROOSEVELT DAM

BY C. J. BLANCHARD

(Statistician, United States Reclamation Service)

THE Roosevelt Dam, in Arizona, the most important masonry structure yet undertaken by the Reclamation Service, was formally dedicated on the afternoon of March 18 by former President Theodore Roosevelt in the presence of the prominent Territorial officers, the Government engineers, and citizens from all parts of the Southwest.

This dam is one of the most impressive irrigation structures in the world and its construction is one of the great engineering feats of the age. From foundation rock to top of parapet walls, it is 284 feet high, its length on crest is 1080 feet, and its cubical contents are 326,000 yards. Its base covers approximately an acre of ground. The first stone was laid on September 20, 1906, and the structure was finally completed on February 5, 1911.

The Roosevelt Dam serves a dual purpose; first as a conservator of floods, and second to develop power. The storage reservoir created by the dam is one of the largest artificial

bodies of water in the world. Spread out a foot deep, it would more than cover the entire State of Delaware.

Located as it is, sixty miles from the nearest railway, in a region heretofore regarded as inaccessible, the engineering problems encountered were diverse and complex and taxed at all times the ingenuity of the builders. First a broad highway was constructed to the dam site. This involved an expenditure of \$350,000. For forty miles or more the road was excavated literally from the canyon walls or on the steep sides of the mountains. In many respects this is one of the most remarkable highways in this country. It opens to the traveler a region of interesting and varied scenery, a succession of deep gorges, and numerous prehistoric ruins.

Remoteness from transportation multiplied the troubles of the engineers. The main camp became a veritable beehive of manufacturing industries. Power was obtained by constructing a dam and many miles



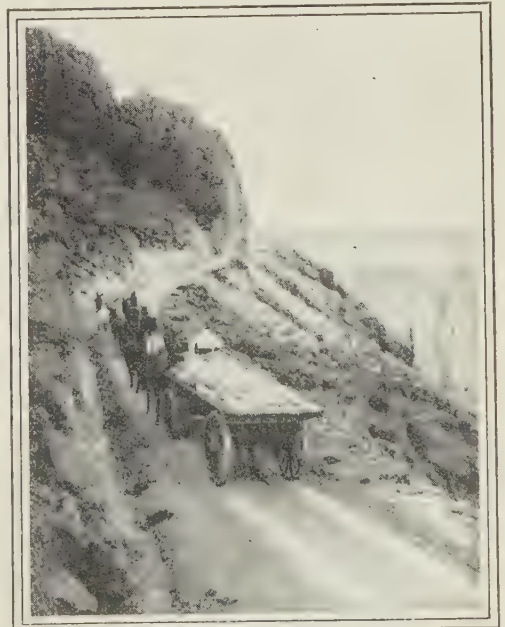
LOOKING DOWNSTREAM AT THE DAM

of canal. Farms were irrigated and produced food for camps and forage for live stock. The Government made its own cement, 346,000 barrels, and saved more than \$600,000 by so doing. A town was built with stores, schools, churches, etc., to care for nearly 2000 people engaged on the work.

Among the numerous irrigated sections of the arid West, few if any excel this valley in the variety of agricultural products, in the length of growing season, the kindliness of its climate, and the fertility of its soil. Crops ripen and are harvested every month in the year, and range from those of the semitropic to those of the temperate zones. With the water supply now guaranteed by the Roosevelt reservoir nearly a quarter of a million acres of this rich valley will soon be in cultivation. The annual income from this land when fully developed will be greater than the entire cost of the whole project, which is estimated at approximately \$9,000,000. So rich is the soil and so assured and abundant are the crops, it is conservative to estimate that the irrigable area is capable of supporting in comfort and in homes of their own not less than 15,000 families on the farms.

The Salt River Valley irrigation project

furnishes indubitable evidence of the wisdom of Congress in enacting the reclamation law.



THE MOUNTAIN ROAD BUILT FOR HAULING SUPPLIES TO THE DAM SITE

UNCLE SAM ON POLICE DUTY

BY ARTHUR WALLACE DUNN

THE United States has become the guardian of the American continent, and, more particularly, the policeman of the Caribbean Sea and the countries and islands whose shores are washed by its waters. Although this country has taken a deep interest in everything pertaining to the welfare of the nations on this hemisphere from the time the first republic was born until the Spanish war, that event has served to create a new condition and accentuate the responsibility which this Government assumed when it first promulgated the Monroe Doctrine. The acquisition of Porto Rico, a virtual protectorate over Cuba, and the control of Santo Domingo finances, have made our interests supreme in the West Indies. The Panama Canal, as President Taft said in his message urging the fortification of the great waterway, has made the Isthmus a part of our coast line, and in so doing has extended our interests to a much greater degree in the Central American republics. Mexico is yearly claiming more of our attention on account of the American capital invested in that country. While the American flag may not float over these lands, yet everything between our southern border and the Panama Canal may be within our "sphere of influence," to use a term employed by European governments in Africa.

AMERICAN INTERESTS IN MEXICO

The interests of American citizens in the other countries are very small compared to those in Mexico. For half a century Americans have been investing in Mexico, until at the present time there is a billion dollars of American money in railroads, mines, forests, and ranches south of the Rio Grande. American capital has been encouraged by President Diaz, and the lives of American citizens have been protected by the strong government he has maintained. Liberal concessions have been granted, but, while they have encouraged Americans to locate and invest in Mexico, they have also created a condition which will tend to increase our problem when Diaz is no more. The liberality toward Americans has created a hatred of them by the classes which have

been kept down and ruled by the iron hand of the dictator-President. They only await the time when they will have the opportunity, not only to destroy the government which Diaz has built up, but also the Americans whom he has favored.

Revolutionists, even if this feeling against Americans did not exist, are no respecters of the property rights of foreigners. The money and other property owned by Americans will be as useful to them as if belonging to the government. Revolutionists take no thought of the day of reckoning; success by any means is their aim.

PRESERVING STABLE GOVERNMENT

All these matters have received due consideration by this Government. With Diaz in control, in spite of the sporadic insurrections, American life and property have been considered safe until very recently, when it seemed clear that the power of the famous old Mexican President was on the wane. It is possible that Diaz may leave a government so strong as to be able to cope with the inevitable revolution that will follow his death, but it is doubtful. In building such a strong government he must have surrounded himself with a number of men who are thirsting for power and who hope to succeed him. It is the history of the world that when a powerful dictator dies he leaves among his own following men who become rivals for the place he has occupied. Strife and revolution are the result. Even the small revolutions that have disturbed Mexico for several months would no doubt be augmented by men now close to Diaz, disappointed because another had been able to seize the powerful place they coveted.

If revolution rages in Mexico after the death of Diaz it will be incumbent upon this nation not only to protect the lives and property of our own citizens, but to see that a stable government is established and maintained. We went to war with Spain because we could no longer permit the intolerable conditions in Cuba. Nor is it likely that the United States will ever again permit like conditions to exist on the American continent. No amount of argument that it is

the duty of this country to allow every other country and every people to work out their own destiny in their own way will prevail against the present fixed policy of preserving the peace of this hemisphere.

It is possible that the United States might be able to adjust all troubles in Mexico without armed interference. The tender of good offices to adjust disputes, or, what is more important, the knowledge that the United States would intervene, might avert actual hostilities, but that force would be used if needed there can be no doubt. More important to the United States than the peace of all other countries is that of Mexico, and in policing the North American continent this Government must, above all else, preserve the peace of Mexico and insure the safety of American citizens and their property.

OUR DUTY TO ENFORCE THE NEUTRALITY LAWS

One of the first duties of the United States is to see that citizens of this country do not supply revolutionists with munitions of war. The cupidity of Americans leads them to take great risks in all revolutions in Latin America. The insurrection in Cuba could not have been carried on without the aid of filibusters from the United States who furnished arms and ammunition to the insurgents.

Mexico offers a better opportunity for gain by Americans who defy and evade the laws of the United States in respect to neutrality than any other country. Revolutionists in Mexico are able to pay well not only for war supplies, but also for men to enlist with their forces. Thousands of nondescripts living in States and Territories bordering on Mexico are willing to become recruits for the revolution when they are furnished rifles, food, and clothing and a little money.

Before the United States can insist that peace and tranquillity be preserved by the Mexican Government or by any of the other southern republics it must first enforce the neutrality laws and prevent freebooters under the protection of American citizenship from stirring up and encouraging strife among people only too ready to revolt against any authority.

THE ROOSEVELT-ROOT POLICY

Secretary Root devoted the years while he was at the head of the State Department to an effort to bring about better relations with the southern countries. He discouraged the soldier of fortune and the concession hunter.

The swashbuckler covering himself with the Stars and Stripes and defying constituted authority found this Government in no mood to protect him; the professional claimant with a doubtful concession could not get this Government to defend his "rights." It was the aim of Secretary Root to secure the confidence of the people in South and Central America by dealing justly with them and not in a spirit of coercion or of exploitation. The "Big Stick" phrase was used constantly during the Roosevelt administration in regard to our dealings with the southern republics, and yet it was under that administration that greater advances were made toward the establishment of friendly relations than ever before. The Root method tended to inspire confidence that our interest in those countries was not one of gain or territorial acquisition. It is only upon this basis that the United States can be successful in the great task of policing the American continent.

OUR CONTINENTAL HEADSHIP

That our relationship with Latin America will become more intimate, even to the point of protectorates over some of these countries, is almost certain. In fact there is an irrepressible movement in that direction and to-day the American Government is bound, by its own interests and implied international obligations, to preserve the peace of the whole region. Foreign nations look to the United States for the safety of their citizens, the protection of their property, and the equitable adjustment of their claims. No foreign country would now think of seizing a port in the Caribbean for the purpose of collecting debts, or landing a force on the shores of a Central American republic, as was done at Corinto a dozen years ago, without first having the consent of the United States.

THE VALUE OF AMERICAN GUARDIANSHIP

At present our control in the countries to the south is exercised by peaceful means and moral influence, rather than by force, but events are so shaping that force may be applied, because of the increasing interests which our citizens are acquiring and the obligations which we have assumed and are likely to assume in the future. That stability of the governments will follow where the United States gives support is certain. The governments which the United States has not approved have tottered and fallen, while

those which were endorsed have survived. This fact will naturally make every man in power in those countries seek to conduct his government so as to meet the approval of the United States, for it has been demonstrated that revolutions which this country does not approve are failures. By this indirect method the guardianship of our Government over those countries becomes permanent.

THE UNITED STATES AND CUBA

As to Cuba, there has already been one intervention and men who know the conditions in that island believe that another is inevitable in the near future, and that when it does come it will be for all time. It is true that our responsibility for Cuba is greater than in regard to any other republic, Panama alone excepted. By treaty obligation, and the still greater moral obligation, we are required to maintain peace in Cuba and to protect not only the lives and property of our own citizens there resident and foreigners, but the lives and property of the native inhabitants of the island as well. Outside of that element in which the Anglo-Saxon lust for territory is deep seated, there is no desire to have Cuba become a part of the United States. A strongly conservative sentiment, desiring rather to be rid of the Philippines than to acquire more alien peoples, prevails in this country, and it would be with many regrets that most of our people would see the flag again raised over Havana. At the same time, another intervention is among the possibilities.

FINANCIAL PROTECTORATES

Santo Domingo finances have for several years been satisfactorily administered by this Government, and in such a way as to preserve the peace of that island. It is the belief of government officials that this peace and tranquillity will be maintained, because the chief incentive for revolution and disorder is removed.

And this also applies to other countries where the United States proposes to take charge of the finances of the governments, adjust outstanding indebtedness, collect the customs revenues, and, after paying the interest and setting aside a sinking fund for the debt, turn the remainder over to the governments for their maintenance. In these transactions, the United States deals with customs receipts, which are the principal sources of revenue, as the internal taxation

does not amount to much in the small republics.

And when the United States becomes responsible for the debts, whether it be to foreign creditors, as in the case of Santo Domingo, or a loan, such as proposed in the case of Honduras, this Government also becomes responsible for the good order of the country and the maintenance of a stable administration. Santo Domingo has not been disturbed by an active revolution since our country took control, but, whenever trouble has threatened, an American warship has appeared on the scene to protect our citizens engaged in the Santo Domingo service, and, as a result, every incipient revolution has died in its infancy. For the same reason, that the peace of Santo Domingo shall not be disturbed, the United States first used its good offices and then a show of force to prevent hostilities against that country by Haiti.

Preventing needless conflicts, revolutions, and internal disorders has become a part of the American continental plan formulated by the United States.

OUR INFLUENCE IN CENTRAL AMERICA

Without the use of force, but with warships in the vicinity of Nicaragua ports, the United States, by its influence, has brought peace to that country, which for years has been in a deplorable condition. It was the efforts of our Government that brought about the expulsion of Zelaya and, soon after, that of his equally unpopular successor, Madriz. President Estrada remains undisturbed, and no doubt will continue to govern as long as he has the support of the United States. As yet no arrangements have been concluded to bring order out of the financial chaos into which the many years of revolution and turmoil have brought Nicaragua, but our good offices have been and will be used to maintain order, and so far as possible to prevent further warfare. The time may come when we shall use force to maintain a stable government, just as was done in Honduras when our warship interfered with the plans of the insurgent gunboat.

Costa Rica has long looked to the United States as its protector against the more powerful neighbors that have constantly been engaging in revolution and war. On account of its friendly relations with the United States, that country has long enjoyed peaceful conditions.

Guatemala is waiting for the death or

overthrow of Cabrera, when it, too, will place its affairs under the "sphere of influence" of this Government, which will mean peace for the country and will enable the people to pursue their vocations with security. The tyrant who now rules Guatemala has reached a stage of abject fear for his life. His old mother cooks all his food and he forces his cabinet to taste it before he will touch it. He lives in constant danger of the assassin's bullet, dagger or drop of poison. A ruler who has so conducted himself as to create such a condition is not one to bring contentment to his people. It is only a question of time when Cabrera will follow Zelaya and Madriz into exile, and Guatemala will seek that security which comes to the republics that have come under American protection.

MAINTAINING PEACE IN SOUTH AMERICA

Not only is the United States the policeman of the North American continent, but its influence extends far below the Panama canal. When the waterway across the isthmus is completed, our Government will be more interested than ever before in preventing destructive wars and revolutions in South America. The efforts of the United States to maintain peace between South American countries are ably seconded by three southern republics, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. They are interested in the tranquillity of South America, and all have joined with the United States to avert hostilities when threatened.

Peru and Ecuador were about to go to war recently. The troops of each country were on the border and a conflict seemed imminent. The United States Government, with the three South American governments named, offered their good offices to adjust the differ-

ences. But the offer was coupled with more than moral suasion. The two belligerents were practically told that they were not to engage in war; that the American continent was not in this day to be disturbed by a war between two countries whose differences could be composed by agreement or arbitration.

While it is possible that the influence of these South American countries alone might have prevented war between Peru and Ecuador, the preponderance of influence that the United States exerts in American affairs did much to avert a clash.

NOT SEEKING TERRITORIAL CONTROL

By becoming the Big Policeman of the American continent, the United States increases its responsibilities, but at the same time it secures an influence for a greater good. When the people of all the American countries learn that the assurance given by Secretary Root at the Rio conference was made in good faith, our protection will be largely sought, instead of sullenly or passively accepted. When they realize that the United States seeks no territory of any country on the American continent, and that, even when in control of a country's finances, nothing but the welfare of that country is sought, it is almost certain that the inclination will be for our neighbors to look to us more and more for support and protection. When they see that prosperity follows peace; that there is more profit in tranquillity than revolution; that a government supported by the United States must be honestly conducted, there will be a general acquiescence in the desirability of having the United States police and protect the peoples of this hemisphere.





"TAXI, MISTER! TAXICAB! TAXI, MISTER!"

(The Chicago mayoralty candidates hustling for support at the primaries)
From the *Inter Ocean* (Chicago)

"THE PEOPLE'S PRIMARIES" IN CHICAGO

BY AN INDEPENDENT OBSERVER

"GIVE the people a chance!" was the cry of the friends of the direct primary system in Chicago and Illinois some years ago, when all the professional politicians were determined to prevent that change in the nominating machinery and to keep the matter of candidate selection in their own hands. Agitation, factional warfare, trickery, intrigue, and counter-intrigue finally resulted in the enactment by the State Legislature of a reasonably free and fair direct primary act. But the courts "killed" that act and another one had to be tried. That too was annulled on rather technical constitutional grounds, and honest men began to ask them-

selves whether any direct primary law was possible under the State constitution as construed by the State Supreme Court. But the Legislature was forced—the press and public applying the pressure—to try once more, and to-day we have in effect a direct primary act which applies to all State and municipal offices. If anything, the act is too "wide," too "open"; and enlightened, sincere men are now advocating amendments limiting its scope and providing for the nomination of municipal officials by petition on non-partisan ballots.

At any rate, on February 22, for the first time in its history, Chicago's qualified voters

had "the chance" to nominate mayoral candidates for themselves, without the unsolicited intervention of bosses and machines skilled in the preparation of "slates" and the manipulation of delegates and conventions. The mayoral term in Chicago is four years, Busse, the retiring Mayor, being the first beneficiary of this particular piece of "charter reform." Four years ago the people had nothing to say about the selection of mayoral or aldermanic candidates, and the nominations were made by the machines and controlled conventions. This year, the direct primary having been secured, Mayor Busse wisely decided, after much anxious reflection, not to run for a second term, since many of his personal friends knew that he could not be reelected. The party machines and "organizations" wished, however, to put forth official harmony tickets, as they had done on other occasions, but agreement was found to be impossible. Factionalism was rife and bitter in both parties; Mayor Busse's reluctance and hesitation embarrassed and hampered other Republican aspirants; the question to what extent, in what manner—if in any—the Busse administration was to be "indorsed" by the organization of his party was a very ticklish and knotty one, for few of the available candidates cared to put the millstone of such an indorsement about their necks. The "interests" hoped and planned for the renomination of Mr. Busse by the Republicans and for the nomination of another "safe" man—a man given to much talk about business and efficiency, but determined first and last to protect privilege and prevent disturbance of vested rights and fixed habits—by the Democrats, and apparently had little apprehension as to the operation of the direct primary law.

As a matter of fact, each of the party and faction machines had its duly labeled and tagged candidate in the field. The mayoral candidate of the regular Republican faction was John R. Thompson, a restaurant keeper and politician, a self-made man. He had the backing not only of the followers of Busse in and out of the City Hall, but of the friends of Senator Lorimer. The candidate of the Deneen faction or element—and Governor Deneen took an active, direct interest in the Chicago mayoral fight—was John F. Smulski, an American of Polish extraction, a banker and former alderman, and a great vote-getter in his day. It is said and believed that Governor Deneen induced Smulski to run in order to defeat the Busse-Lorimer candidate. There were also two obscure Republican candidates who ran to advertise them-

selves or their business. And—last but emphatically not least—there was Professor Alderman Charles E. Merriam, who had entered the race as the first of the Republican candidates.

Mr. Merriam has confounded the politicians, surpassed the fondest expectations of his friends and astonished "the oldest inhabitant." On the eve of the primaries, his closest political advisers thought that he would receive 35,000 votes and be nominated by a "fair" plurality. He actually received over 54,000 votes, and his plurality was over 28,000. He had more votes than the two machine candidates together and almost as many as *all* of his Republican rivals combined.

The voters had their "chance," and they improved it—with a vengeance. It is true that Mr. Merriam was greatly helped by a chapter of accidents—the squabbling and wrangling of the factional cliques and their bosses, the loss of time and confidence and prestige by these bosses, the unpopularity, not to say the collapse, of the Busse administration. But all this does not detract materially from the splendor and value of his personal achievement.

Mr. Merriam is a young man—still under forty—and he came to Chicago only eight years ago. He is associate professor of political science in the University of Chicago and the author of two or three modest books on phases of party politics and political machinery (of which the best known is a fair, sane exposition of "Primary Elections"). He was nominated and elected alderman from the University ward two years ago, a vacancy then fortunately occurring by the voluntary retirement of a respected alderman. He owed that office to his previous intelligent work on a proposed new charter for the city and to his earnest and practical interest, as a student, citizen and active member of a committee of the City Club, in municipal and governmental problems. Everyone welcomed Professor Merriam's entrance into the City Council—everybody except the spoils-men and looters. Once in the Council, Alderman Merriam devoted himself to the pursuit of efficiency and economy—perhaps I should say to the pursuit of "grafters" and chair-warmers and parasites in the interest of efficiency and economy. One of his first notable acts was the introduction of a resolution for the creation of an "efficiency" commission to inspect the departments, examine the payrolls, make savings where possible, and eradicate waste and dishonesty.

The move displeased the ordinary politician, but open opposition was out of the question. Mr. Busse had promised economy and businesslike efficiency, and many business men had trusted him and continued to trust him. The Merriam resolution was adopted unanimously, and its author was "correctly" made chairman of the commission. The investigation was carried on under great difficulties and in spite of obstruction, hostility, and indifference. The burden fell on Mr. Merriam and Walter L. Fisher, the mayor's traction adviser, whom President Taft has just named as his Secretary of the Interior. The commission worked quietly, avoided all spectacular effects, submitted its reports in the most "correct" manner, and—put lots of moral and political dynamite into them. Thefts and graft amounting to hundreds of thousands of dollars were uncovered; unfit officials were fearlessly exposed; resignations were forced. Under another Mayor, dozens of office-holders would have been dismissed and many reforms instituted as a result of the Merriam inquiry. Mr. Busse did little or nothing. That, coupled with other disqualifications, killed him politically—and it made Merriam the logical anti-graft candidate.

Mr. Merriam was urged to run for Mayor by men from other wards than his. He carefully considered the suggestion and consented to run not because he was ambitious but because he felt that he could serve the city in an anti-graft campaign, to begin with, and later in the office of Mayor in the event of his election. He had no organization, but honest, progressive and earnest men—rich and poor—rallied to his support. His campaign was generously financed by persons who had no favors to ask for themselves but who ardently desired good government. At the suggestion of a newspaper, every dollar received and spent in his interest was accounted for in an itemized statement. Mr. Merriam had astute advisers and able speakers to assist him, but his campaign was largely a personal one. Even the decent newspapers of the city lifted no vigorous voice for him. He scored points daily; he made friends wherever he spoke. His vote represents an aggressive and enthusiastic sentiment for municipal reform. If Mr. Merriam shall be elected Mayor, the idlers and parasites will "go," large economies will be effected, and the whole tone of the administration will be raised. He is regarded as "the man of the hour," the man Chicago has long waited for

and needed. He is no extremist, and he makes few glittering promises. But he is efficient, resolute, well informed and upright—and he owes nothing to politicians, newspapers or machines. He will be Mayor—if elected—by vote of the people, with a mandate from them to clean house and set it in order.

His Democratic opponent is former Mayor Carter H. Harrison. Mr. Harrison retired six years ago from the office he now seeks again. He had served four two-year terms. He was an honest Mayor and he stood like an iron wall in the way of traction franchise-grabbers and frenzied exploiters of the public. His great services were negative; he was neither constructive nor progressive. He now stands on a very radical and very constructive platform, and his candidacy is undoubtedly a formidable affair. He has the support of the Hearst newspapers of Chicago. Splendid promises are made for him and by him, but many of his political backers are greedy spoilsmen and cheap professional politicians. He may have grown, but aggressive warfare on graft and parasitism is not among the probabilities of a Harrison administration.

Mr. Harrison, like Merriam, gave his party a shock and surprise. Its "regular" candidate was a private banker and popular man, Andrew J. Graham. But Graham was regarded as the candidate of the gas company and other public service companies, and on primary day he cut a sorry figure. His vote was a little over 38,000, whereas Mr. Harrison polled over 55,000 votes—an astonishing number considering the fact that ex-Mayor Dunne, who was defeated by Busse four years ago on the traction issue, was also a candidate and polled nearly 54,000 votes. Dunne was strong among workmen, Democratic radicals and other elements, and there are many who put him next to Merriam in their preferences. Dunne's vote was a revelation, and so was Harrison's. The Democratic total vote was record-breaking.

In short, the people "turned out" and voted at the first mayoral primaries. The party machines were ignored and flouted. The direct primary "worked" negatively and positively. It all but nominated Dunne and it nominated Merriam, progressive, honest candidates who had neither organization nor newspaper support worth mentioning.

And now the voters are to decide between Harrison and Merriam.

RECIPROCITY AND LUMBER

A STATEMENT BASED ON OFFICIAL REPORTS

THE proposed legislation pursuant to the reciprocity agreement with Canada puts rough lumber on the free list. The present law taxes it \$1.25 a thousand feet; the Dingley law taxed it \$2. On planed lumber, however, the proposed law retains charges ranging from 50 cents a thousand for lumber planed on one side to \$1.50 for lumber planed and finished on four sides. All these rates, except possibly the 50 cents for lumber planed on one side, exceed the whole cost of planing. For lumber planed on four sides, the duty may be two or three times the whole cost of planing.

Shingles were taxed 30 cents a thousand by the Dingley act, and were raised to 50 cents by the present law. The proposed law would reduce them to 30 cents, the Dingley rate. Lath paid 25 cents a thousand under the Dingley act; they pay 20 cents at present; the proposed law puts them at 10 cents.

Telegraph poles, pickets, and staves pay 10 per cent. at present. The proposed law puts them on the free list.

While the present law reduced the Dingley rates on sawed lumber, the change in the quantity imported was not great. Imports of sawed lumber were 1,008,993,000 feet in 1906, 769,267,000 in 1908, and 950,269,000 in 1910. The latter quantity is about 2 per cent. of the quantity sawed in the United States.

It is argued that the residuum from the price received for lumber after deducting the cost of logging, manufacture, and distribution, together with the usual competitive business profit to the sawmill and distributor, goes to the owner of the standing timber. For example: Take any given tract of timber, cut it, and saw it. A certain amount must be spent in felling the trees and bringing the logs to mill; a certain amount in converting the logs into lumber, and marketing it; a certain amount will be reckoned as profit on the capital used in these processes. Subtract these sums from what the lumber sells for, and the remainder is what the standing timber has brought. It may bring \$2 a thousand feet, or \$5, or \$15; and all these values are actually being realized to-day, according to the location and quality of the timber.

Now assume that the selling value of the sawed lumber be raised 50 cents a thousand

by a tariff duty. It still costs no more to fell the trees, to bring the logs to mill, or to saw them. The expenses are no more than before, and the receipts are 50 cents a thousand more. Therefore this increase is gotten for the standing timber. A general advance in the value of standing timber therefore follows.

Thus, it will be seen that any increase due to tariff protection goes to what may be called the residuary legatee, the timber owner, and simply serves to protect an unearned increment in a natural resource for the benefit of those who have obtained possession of this resource. That the value of standing timber is nearly all an unearned increment is obvious from the fact that our standing timber grew in a state of nature and without the aid of human effort.

The increase in value of this resource since its acquisition by private holders is shown in the Report of the Commissioner of Corporations on the Lumber Industry, where it is stated that of the Southern yellow pine sold by the Government for \$1.25 an acre, much is now worth \$60 per acre. Large amounts of Douglas fir in western Washington and Oregon, which the Government gave away, or sold for \$2.50 an acre, now range from \$100 to \$200 per acre. Practically none of the great forests in the public-land States was sold by the Government for more than \$2.50 an acre.

The foregoing argument is emphasized by the fact that the great bulk of this natural resource is owned by a few holders as shown in the said report of the Commissioner of Corporations. For example, three great holders, the Southern Pacific Company, the Northern Pacific Railway Company, and the Weyerhaeuser Timber Company, have 14 per cent. of the timber in the area investigated by the Commissioner, which area contains 80 per cent. of the privately owned timber in the United States. Ninety holders have 40 per cent., and 1802 holders have 69 per cent. These figures throw a practical light on the question as to who are the recipients of the benefits of lumber duties. In so far as the tariff is a tax upon consumers, it goes to the timber speculator.

The Commissioner's report states that the present value of the privately owned timber

in the United States, not including the value of the land, is at least \$6,000,000,000; and, owing to the diminishing amount of the resource and the increasing demand, this value is certain to increase rapidly in the future.

Bulletin 83 of the Forest Service, issued December, 1910, presents a tentative estimate of 360 billion (360,000,000,000) board feet of merchantable standing timber in

Canada. The said report of the Commissioner of Corporations shows 2800 billion (2,800,000,000,000) board feet of such timber in continental United States. Based on these figures, the timber supply of Canada is thus about one-eighth of that in the United States. Because of this relatively small amount of timber, free Canadian lumber could have only a very limited effect on prices in the United States.

TIMBER CONSERVATION AS RELATED TO RECIPROCITY

BY THOMAS B. WALKER

[Mr. Thomas B. Walker, the author of the following article, is the veteran timber land owner and lumberman of the Northwest. He is reputed to be the largest individual holder of pine lands in the country. Aside from his lumber interests, Mr. Walker has been identified in a large variety of ways with the public affairs of the Northwest. He is a beloved benefactor of his adopted city of Minneapolis, where he has built suburbs, street railways, and business structures, besides being known as the father of its public library. His art gallery, which he opens to the public, contains one of the largest and most valuable private collections in the country.]

In this article Mr. Walker takes the view that the admission of free lumber from Canada necessitates the slaughtering of our own forests, because the timber owners would be compelled to utilize only the best parts of the tree, leaving the rest to go to waste. Strong arguments are urged on the other side of the question, but Mr. Walker has always presented his views with sincerity and force, and he is not without a thorough knowledge of the principles and methods of modern forestry. This article of his is written from the standpoint of his own convictions regarding the preservation of privately owned American tracts of timber.—THE EDITOR.]

THE argument in favor of free trade is, in effect, that it will reduce the price of lumber to a point below the cost of production, and by thus making the cutting of lumber in the United States unprofitable, our forests will remain to a large extent uncut and preserved for future use. The statesmanship that offers this as a reason for the discrimination against the lumber industry exhibits a total ignorance of the essential facts and conditions involved, and a tendency to withhold from those engaged in it such fair treatment as has usually been accorded to all other industries.

The fact that Eastern Canada is no longer a dangerous competitor, by reason of the exhaustion of her timber supply through favorable conditions of cheap production and delivery, will no longer be of benefit to our Eastern States of Maine and Pennsylvania, or to Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, for the forest lands of these States have also been to an equal or even greater extent denuded. Nor will it materially help the Pacific States, from which the principal future timber supply is to come, because these Western forests are being wasted from the

same causes and at about the same rapid rate as have been the forests of the East.

In the report of the Conservation Commission to the President we find the following summary:

The total yearly growth of our forests is less than 7,000,000,000 of cubic feet; we take from the forests each year, including waste in logging and manufactures, 23,000,000,000 cubic feet, or more than three times the annual production. Not less than 50,000,000 acres of forest land is burned over annually, and since 1870 forest fires have each year destroyed an average of fifty lives and \$50,000,000 worth of timber. One-fourth of the standing timber is left or otherwise lost in logging; the boxing of long-leaf pine for turpentine has destroyed one-fifth of the forests worked; the loss in the mill is from one-third to two-thirds of the timber sawed; and the loss in the mill product, from seasoning and fitting from use, is from one-seventh to one-fourth. In other words, only 320 feet of lumber is used for every 1000 feet that stood in the forest.

That is to say that, according to this invoice, more than two-thirds of the available timber supply has been wasted. In the newer and larger timber regions there is but little difference now in the process of waste and practically no consideration whatever is

given to reforestation or to the cultivation of a future supply.

Now, why this waste and who or what is responsible for it? Have the men engaged in manufacturing the lumber wasted it without cause or reason? If a reasonable return could have been obtained through conservative methods, why were they not used? There is no more inclination toward vandalism or undesirable citizenship on the part of those engaged in the production of lumber than among those in any other occupation. The truth is that wasting has not been optional; it has been mandatory. Public policy brought the price of the low grades of lumber below the cost of production, and to put a larger proportion of the low-grade lumber into the market would have still further reduced the price with a consequent greater loss.

Had the methods pursued in the past by the Government in managing the forests been intentionally designed to waste the timber and render reforestation impossible, no more certain plan to accomplish this could have been devised. And there can be no question that the forestry policies in force at present, and the conditions existing in the great timbered areas of the West,—whence in large part the national supply of the future is to come,—will continue to operate as they have in the past and produce the same results.

A great error has been that the features of forestry that have been discussed and investigated are not fundamental, and they will not furnish a sufficient understanding of the subject to lead to the formation of a practicable plan of conservation.

The investigation and discussion of forestry problems have been limited almost exclusively by what the National Forestry Commission has named the *invoice*. This is directed to giving the *extent and the detail of the process* by which our forests are being wasted, but the really vital points,—those that lie at the very foundation of the question of effective conservation—namely, *the causes and the responsibility* for wasting the forests, have been largely overlooked or ignored.

That the forests have been cut down, at least to the extent of about one-half of the entire supply of pine, and that the prevailing methods of forestry will rapidly exhaust the remainder, has been fully shown. But that the wasteful methods are simply *the result of other causes* has not been recognized; and, unless these causes are considered and remedied, their continued existence will have the effect of consuming the remainder of the forests.

The three factors that have been chiefly responsible for the wasting of our forests have been: (1) The discriminating tariff schedules on lumber; (2) the timber land laws and the method of their administration, and (3) the burdensome taxation of standing timber by States and counties. And if these factors are not eliminated, they will certainly result in the entire destruction of our forests. Each year that passes without the application of efficient measures of conservation will make it more difficult to provide for a future timber supply. The single object of our lumber tariffs and forest administration hitherto seems to have been to secure the lowest possible prices for lumber, without regard to the questions of economy, the future welfare of the public, or the equitable treatment of those engaged in the lumber industry.

The factor contributing most to prevent the economical management of our forests has been the denying of adequate tariff protection against Canadian imports. This has put American lumbermen at a disadvantage and made impracticable the conservative handling of our forest resources. In sharp contrast to the conditions in the United States is the extremely favorable treatment of the Canadian lumbermen by their government in furnishing direct to them in large, compact holdings the finest bodies of pine at nominal prices and free from taxation. Discriminating laws have hindered and handicapped the American lumberman, compelling him to pay a comparatively high price for his timber supply. This, when added to the higher rate of taxes and interest on the investment, together with the greater cost of production, should entitle the lumber interests to a larger tariff protection than exists in the case of any other commodity produced on American soil. Only by such larger tariff protection can the low grades of timber bring sufficient return to avoid their being wasted and the extra cost of conservation be paid.

Also greatly harmful to the cause of conservation is the excessive and discriminating tax on growing timber. Standing timber is subject to an annual tax running for all the years that the milling plant is in operation until the timber is cut. On investigation this taxation has been found to be so excessive a burden on the timber as to render conservation practically impossible, and to necessitate radical changes which have been strongly recommended by the Conservation Commission and by all those who have given attention to the subject. If the investigation had

extended to a consideration of the other two most fundamental causes responsible for the wasting of the forests in the past, a very favorable outcome of the conservation movement might with reason have been anticipated. For it is obvious that these causes must be reckoned with in discussing any practicable plan for the conservative handling of the remaining timber and for providing a continuous timber supply.

The National Forest Service, under the preceding administration as also under the present one, has recognized the necessity for radical changes in the management of our forests and for coöperation by all concerned. Mr. Graves, the present head of the service, in his address at the last annual meeting of the American Forestry Association, said on this point:

The conditions which prevent private owners from practising forestry must be changed. He must be given public aid and protection from fire; there must be a reasonable system of taxation of growing timber. There must be coöperation in meeting the peculiar difficulties of his business which tend to stand in the way of conservation. The practice of forestry by private owners must be brought about through the assistance and coöperation by the federal Government and the States.

The possibilities of and responsibilities for conservation of the forests rest with the public. If the necessity for coöperation and for the providing of means for conservatively handling the forests are not recognized, the responsibility will not be chargeable to the lumberman. Conservation is of far greater value to the public than to those engaged in lumbering. The entire product and industrial advantage go to the public, while only a comparatively small fraction of profit goes to the timber-land owners. Under conservation the margins of profits may not be greatly, if any, increased above the much greater cost of conservation methods. The public's advantages will be multiplied or increased in the course of time beyond computation.

And now to enter improvidently into a more permanent and unchangeable agreement with Canada for free imports of lumber and farm products is another deadly blow to conservation. To adopt such a course under pressure of a temporary public opinion that

demands reduced tariffs and lower costs of living may be a fair sample of modern politics. But it fails to take into consideration the certain reversal of free-trade sentiment which will undoubtedly follow as a result of a collapsed prosperity. Neither does it take into account the more permanent public sentiment in favor of the conservation of the forests, which conservation will receive an irremediable setback from a low tariff or free trade. Moreover, the trade balances now in our favor will be promptly turned against us. Free trade would give the northwestern American railroads and milling interests a larger supply of freight to carry and grind, but it would add a still greater final bill of cost to the industrial and agricultural interests.

The great expense of efficient measures for protection against fire, the extra cost of reforestation, added to that of conservative logging and manufacturing, and the heavy carrying charges of taxes and interest on the investment, cannot be met when the price for common lumber is legislated down to a point below the cost of production. Without coöperation and fair treatment and encouragement for the conservative handling of the forests, conservation cannot be accomplished, and time will fully prove it. By the application of practical measures lumbering may be maintained as a perpetual American industry of great profit and importance to the people of the country. But if such measures are not taken, the industry will in a comparatively few years be in large part destroyed. That a large part of our forest resources has already been destroyed is admitted by all, and that under existing conditions the process of annihilation will continue until the remainder is also exhausted, is likewise true. Shall the problem remain unsolved? Its days of usefulness as a theme for orators and editors are past. The time for devising practical methods for conservation is already many years overdue. To put new statutory obligations and burdens upon the timber and lumber interests will only accelerate and make additionally certain the wasting of the remaining forests. Instead of piling more burdens on the industry, some of the long-existing ones must be removed and helpful coöperation given if conservation is to be made to any great extent successful.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WHERE OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS FAIL

EVERY citizen who has the welfare of the rising generation at heart will endorse the claim made by President M. C. Wilson, of the Alabama State Normal School, in the *Educational Review*, that "the public certainly has the right to expect from our public-school system approximately some such results as these: a preparation for earning a livelihood, the development of moral fiber, a fair degree of scholarship, or at least a desire to learn more after leaving school, an appreciation of the beautiful in art and nature, and a deep respect for the laws of the land." That these results have been attained in thousands of cases, there can be little doubt. At the same time, it is an open question whether the school helps a reasonably large percentage of children in these particulars. That boys and girls come from the schools with little preparation for work, is the complaint heard from the business houses, the farms, and every class of industry. We are told:

The schools have given the children an "education" which does not fit them to earn a living, and which in some cases even unfits them for this desired end. . . . The boys and girls starting their careers as breadwinners may have some sort of education that will help them in learning a business or trade, but they must first serve an apprenticeship on low wages or none, before they arrive at the point to which the school is expected to bring them. Why are children in purely agricultural regions given the same course of study as those in mining regions or manufacturing centers? . . . As far as school preparation goes, the boy from the school in the mining town or the manufacturing city is quite as well prepared to earn his bread on the farm as the boy from the rural school.

As regards moral training, the writer of the article under notice cannot see that the schools give any better *raison d'être*.

We hear it said, not in defense but in the way of boasting, that our great public-school system promotes morality by demanding punctuality in attendance, accuracy of work, honesty, respect for the rights of others, and subordination of individual good to community interest. . . . Teachers know that the public school does none of these things directly. On the contrary, it encourages lying and cheating by its mechanical methods of promotion, it stifles self-respect by a kind of espionage, while its arbitrary rulings are not calculated to produce morality of any shape. . . . As to respect for the rights of others, one needs only to compare the

conduct of the American boy away from home for his holiday with that of boys of almost any other nationality, to realize how far short he falls in consideration for the feelings of others, and even in matters of ordinary good breeding. Smartness and knowingness are his desiderata, not quiet dignity and self-control.

The same writer draws an equally unfavorable conclusion in the matter of scholarship. Whereas many Germans who have learned English in their schools speak it fairly well, read it with ease, and consume a surprising amount of good English literature, comparatively few of our high-school graduates can speak German intelligibly, or read it outside their text-books.

But at least in the making of good citizens and in creating a reverence for the law the schools must be doing their part. Not so, according to the article under notice.

We do not respect our laws, unless we approve of them; we openly claim our right to violate those that we disapprove. Public officers charged with their execution plead inability to enforce them because of their unpopularity. There is a strong feeling that penalties for crime may be evaded, and when evaded, the commission of a crime is felt to bear with it no inherent turpitude. . . . In all of the schools the children are taught civics with the purpose of making good citizens of them, but apparently with results as fruitless as those of efforts in other directions.

As to the remedy for the existing state of things educational—have we not imbibed in our schools the American spirit of hurry and rush? "We hurry at our meals, our pleasures, our devotions, our business, and our schools, where we deny ourselves leisure for reflection, comparison, digestion, assimilation and enjoyment." There must be hurry on the part of both teacher and scholar to get the day's work through, and no time for practical application of the day's lessons. What might be done to better matters is, instead of dropping some of the subjects from the curriculum, as might be proposed, to forbear cramming *all* this intellectual food into each individual, or to give it in smaller amounts, so that some part of each subject might be assimilated.

We might better follow the example of the Germans by differentiating the schools, having one kind for commercial, another for agricultural, an-

other for trade education, combining in each school work with some sort of apprenticeship in the work to be followed by the child after leaving school.

Besides furnishing the means of making our schools really efficient in training children to

earn a livelihood, this or some kindred plan would bring more of the children to the high school; for were the work invested with some life, children would not be in a hurry to drop it.

FACTS ABOUT COLD STORAGE

A GOOD many American housekeepers will, we think, be somewhat confounded when they come to read the facts presented by Mr. L. E. Theiss in his article on "Cold Storage and the Cost of Living" in the *Pictorial Review* (New York). These facts are submitted as a reply to some observations made by an imaginary "Mr. Brown" to his wife concerning the high prices charged for certain commodities in daily use. Brown, on being informed by his better half that oranges are 40 cents a dozen, eggs 42 cents a dozen, sirloin steak 30 cents a pound, and butter 37 cents a pound, launches out in a violent tirade against the cold-storage companies, arraiging them in the following terms:

"These cold-storage men simply rob us. I read the other day that there were fourteen million dozen eggs in storage, and here we are paying twice what eggs are worth. Something ought to be done about it.

"They not only rob us, but they poison us as well. I was reading in the paper to-day about some chickens that had been in cold storage three years. They were so bad they had turned green; yet a butcher was trying to sell them at a high price. Half the stuff these fellows sell is rotten. They combine to buy up all the poultry, butter and eggs, and keep it for years till they force the price way up. They make so much profit on it that they don't care if some of it does rot. It helps to keep the price high. And the packers do just the same with the meat. I tell you something has got to be done about it."

Mr. Theiss admits that there was "a lot of truth" in what Brown said, but that the latter, instead of reasoning out his conclusions, jumped at them. To begin with, the cold-storage man merely does on a large scale what every good housekeeper does on a small scale when she buys perishable food on Saturday and puts it away in the refrigerator for the Sunday dinner, a cold-storage plant being simply an enlarged refrigerator. The cold-storage man, too, "buys food on the Saturday of plenty and holds it for the Sunday of scarcity." Eggs bought in April are kept till December; chickens bought in the fall are stored still spring; apples stored in November are carried till March.

Thus when the Sunday of scarcity comes round, cold storage brings about a condition of plenty,

where normally there would be a dearth; and if the cold-storage products have kept well, they are of better quality than fresh food produced in the current season. So that cold storage, in theory at least, is a great blessing. It saves us from worry over our Sunday dinner.

Equally beneficial is the influence of cold storage on production itself. Before the advent of cold storage, "fish used to lie in mountains on the wharves, waiting to be carried off by farmers for fertilizer. Commission men will tell you of the tons and tons of fruit that used to rot on their hands."

Neither the fisherman nor the farmer got anything for his labor of production. The result was a lessened supply for a time, and higher prices. The fat years were followed by lean ones. Thus the producer was harmed, and the consumer not benefited, for glut-time prices were more than offset by the increased cost of food in the period of scarcity.

Brown's statement, that the cold-storage men bought up food products and held them till they had forced the price up, is disposed of by Mr. Theiss in the following paragraph:

Excepting the big meat packers, only a very few of the men who deal in cold-storage products own cold-storage plants. New York, for instance, is the center of an enormous cold-storage fish business, yet not a single fish concern in New York owns a cold-storage plant. Cold-storage plants are built and operated for the sole purpose of selling refrigeration. Anybody can buy that refrigeration, just as anybody can rent space in any other kind of warehouse. There are one thousand cold-storage plants in America. Each of these plants has scores and scores of customers, and each of these customers is in keen competition with all his fellows. To combine them would be about as difficult as to combine the farmers. So that the "food trust" we hear so much about is very largely a myth.

Further, in regard to the assertion of Mr. Brown that he had read that 14,000,000 dozen eggs were held in storage, Mr. Theiss presents figures, given to a United States Senate committee, to the effect that the total egg production for 1910 was 21,500,000,000 of which *only 5 per cent. went into cold storage*. Similarly the president of the American Warehousemen's Association testified that only "4 to 6 per cent. of butter and eggs ever got into storage." So that

"the cold-storage plant is really a big food reservoir that dams back the flood in fresher times and holds the surplus for the season of drought."

As cited above, Mr. Brown had read that chickens had been kept in storage for three years. Such things have happened. But usually the period of storage is only a few months. On this point the following table is illuminating:

PRODUCT	AVERAGE STORAGE PERIOD	MAXIMUM
Poultry.....	6 months	10 months
Eggs.....	6 "	10 "
Fish.....	6 "	12 "
Fresh meat.....	6 "	12 "
Butter.....	6 "	10 "
Apples.....	2 "	6 "
Celery.....	1 "	3 "
Dried fruit.....	6 "	12 "

That the cold-storage charges do not appreciably raise the cost of food is shown by the charges themselves, which are: For eggs, two cents a dozen for six months; butter, one-sixth of a cent a month per pound; poultry one cent per pound for six months. Practically all of our meat is stored by the packers themselves; and the average price "when the storage man is through with it" is, according to Mr. Theiss, approximately eight cents a pound. It would thus seem that we must look elsewhere than to cold storage for the real cause of high prices.

Conversely, it may be asked, if storage charges amount to so little, why do they prevent the long holding of food products? The answer given by Mr. Theiss is that food dealers handle their commodities on a very narrow margin of profit.

JAPAN'S SOCIAL EVOLUTION

WHATEVER differences of opinion may exist with regard to certain elements in the Japanese character, there is one feature concerning which all must agree, and that is a remarkable quickness to perceive the advantages of Western educational and social customs. And these advantages once recognized, no time is lost in paving the way for their adoption. It was in 1854, when Japan was again thrown open to Western intercourse, that reforms of every sort became imperative, if the nation as such was to show a united front in the face of imminent danger of utter wreck and ruin. The *Oriental Economic Review* (New York) admits that two important changes were introduced mainly through American influence; namely, an anti-opium policy and the proclamation of religious toleration and freedom. The disbanding of the samurai, or hereditary soldiery, and the prohibition of their wearing two swords, says the same journal, cleared the way for the political equality of the four classes—the gentry, the agriculturists, the artisans, and the merchants; and this political emancipation led to a national system of compulsory education enabling the masses to choose their own occupation.

When a constitution was granted the people, they began the reform of their social conduct independently of political interference. Concerning the results that have followed we read:

One thing is firmly established in the Japanese mind—the necessity for the education of woman. The legalizing of the so-called social evil was much criticized at one time, although public sentiment

acquiesced in the existing system with its strict segregation and hygienic laws, considering that the evil appears in some countries in more demoralizing forms. The adoption of modern conveniences of travel has taught the propriety of giving seats to old people and women, and this is merely one instance of many in which family etiquette or class consideration has been modified to meet present conditions.

As is commonly the case in a country eager for reform, there were many wild schemes of regeneration proposed in Japan. One reformer suggested the improvement of the racial features of the Japanese by intermarriages with Caucasians; another, that the Church of England should be transplanted in Japanese soil; a third, that English should become the national language. Commenting on these the *Oriental Economic Review* says:

Not from mixed marriages, but through sanitary and hygienic measures is the physique of the rising generation noticeably improving. Instead of using religion as a mere tool in the hands of politicians, all faiths and cults are allowed, that man may be regenerated from his own inner consciousness. Linguistic reformers now propose to remove the difficulties of the national system of writing by the adoption of the Roman alphabet or of a new scientific one. The problem of national dress is still awaiting solution because it is not an easy matter to strike the golden mean which will combine the grace of our native kimono and the practical utility of Western clothing. In the meantime we cannot but keep to the dual arrangement of wearing the native dress for home and social purposes and the other for public and industrial pursuits. The Japanese costume, as the custom of sitting, is influenced more or less by the architecture of the country, and this, in its turn, is influenced by the volcanic character of the land.

Both Buddhists and Christians have organized temperance societies, and Parliament has passed a

law prohibiting minors from smoking. . . . Peace societies, and societies for the humane protection of animals have been organized. In the domain of theatrical improvement, the shortening of the hours, the abolition of tea-houses surrounding a theatre, and the mingling of actors and actresses on the same stage are among the points suggested to bring dramatic entertainment within easy reach of all and melodrama nearer to real life. For dinner parties and other festivities, it is desired by

social reformers that women should join their husbands, fathers and brothers, so that the presence of *geisha* girls would no more be required as enliveners of the occasion. . . . To the brilliant success of its sanitary plans was due in great measure the triumph of the Japanese army on the battlefield; but sanitation is still an ever-growing problem. The modern system of factory labor is now urging on our attention the need of protecting workers in general, and women and children in particular.

IBSEN AND TOLSTOY: ALIKE YET UNLIKE

A GRAPHIC parallel between Ibsen and Tolstoy is suggested in a recent number of one of the Russian reviews. Says the author of the article, which by the way, has attracted much attention in Russia:

Both abounded in "material" from which kings are made, as one of Ibsen's dramas is called the original, "The Pretenders to the Throne." Both had their own clearly defined and "truly royal" task in life, and both were rebels. Both wished to free the human soul from all that accumulated on its outside. Both were enemies of all dogmas and everything dogmatic. Both denied limitations, not excluding that which is usually glorified under the name of patriotism. Each went through his life in his own distinct path, and the precipice between these two paths was defined by the peculiarities of the chosen paths. It is well known that Tolstoy did not like Ibsen and never recognized him as a literary artist. The reason for this diversity is not in the symbolism and technical peculiarities of Ibsen's works, but it is in the polarity of their viewpoints as to the method of living which should be considered right. One was the apostle of self-humiliation. The other was the poet of human pride. One loved—always wished to love his neighbor, the "near" man, such as he is now in the present moment with all of his defects; the other preferred to see in his dreams the far-off man, such as he should become in the future. One dreamed about the quiet kingdom of God on earth. The other thought only of the proud kingdom of man on earth. Thus both rebels went on different roads, although both directed their steps toward the same distant goal,—the moral liberation of man and his life, taken both collectively and individually. And, after all, these two different roads actually intersected in the guise of Brand, Ibsen's country pastor. One "invented" this type, and the other enacted him in his life.

These are the opening sentences of the article which appears in the *Russkoye Bogostvo*. It was written à propos the newly published letters of Tolstoy, which as the editor, the well-known Russian critic, A. E. Ryedko, claims, reveal to the public more of Tolstoy's inner self than all of his other works put together. In this article we really have a concise comparison of the personal ethics of the two great writers of the world whose deaths are fresh as yet in the world's memory. The author assumes most of Ibsen's personal

views represented in the character of Brand, and those of Tolstoy as shown in his letters.

With all of the apparent pessimism of Ibsen, we are reminded, he was a man who firmly believed in humanity and in its essential goodness. Ibsen believed that all the evil in the world came from the fact that the individual has not freedom enough, that the individual oppresses himself, his true nature, because of the false social conditions. "Free the man," says Ibsen, "from this serfdom of spirit, and the kingdom of the proud and beautiful personality will prevail on earth."

Hence Ibsen's cult, his cult of the "task of life" which would convert every life into the free worship of common welfare. Hence his peculiarity of a "builder." Requiring life to be built on an ideal foundation, he fears not at all to entrust the building of it to the free man possessed of all of his passions. The man of to-day disposes badly of his involuntary work, but the man of the future will gladly execute his freely chosen task of life. For it he will endure hardship and sacrifices because this task will be the very best part of his own self. Such is Brand, the pastor, the type of man with Ibsen's turn of mind and soul. On his pastoral (*i. e.*, human) way, Brand "falls," "rises," and finally dies, in the name of his task, beaten with stones and abandoned by his followers, having already sacrificed his only child and his dearly beloved wife. For this enormous character of Ibsen's creation all of these sufferings were not sufficient. Brand says in one place: "Our duty is to wish with all our souls for that which can be done either on a small or on a large scale, within the limits of such sufferings, toils, and struggle. But we must also stand to the end, and be ready to undergo all trials of soul and body."

In all the views of Ibsen on that which is necessary to improve universal life there is not perhaps a word with which Tolstoy would agree, and yet, when giving the characteristics of Brand as of Ibsen's type of highest human value, we have already entered in the very atmosphere of Tolstoy's letters. The innermost code of ethics to which "our prophet subjected himself, the best portrayal of the struggle which was constantly going on between his way of living and his ideals, is given to us in these letters which are real self-

revelations." Here are some illustrative extracts from these letters:

I am thus myself,—valuing worldly glory, and yet struggling against it with all the fibers of my soul. (1890.)

I cannot cease wishing to alter my life, and I am tormenting myself trying to do so, for I suffer from my bad life. (1896.)

I am very much oppressed that I am constantly waiting for the "masters" and I wish to have strength enough to devote the rest of my life in writing for Afanasy.¹ (1896.)

One of the sacrifices Tolstoy makes to his God of Love is described in this passage of a letter to his intimate friend, the artist, N. N. Ge, in 1888.

Here [in Moscow] as well as in the country I am continuing to abstain from working with my pen,

¹ Afanasy is a masculine name very common in the lower classes of Russia.

and imagine, this abstinence gives me joy and satisfaction. Of course there is the struggle against the habitual egotistical longing to protect myself from life by the work of the pen, but finally I mastered this unconquerable force which would make me write. I suppressed this inner tribunal which was so lenient to self, and which used to approve of all of my wrongdoings.

Tolstoy investigated and considered everything and found nothing higher than the mutual love of men, says the author in conclusion.

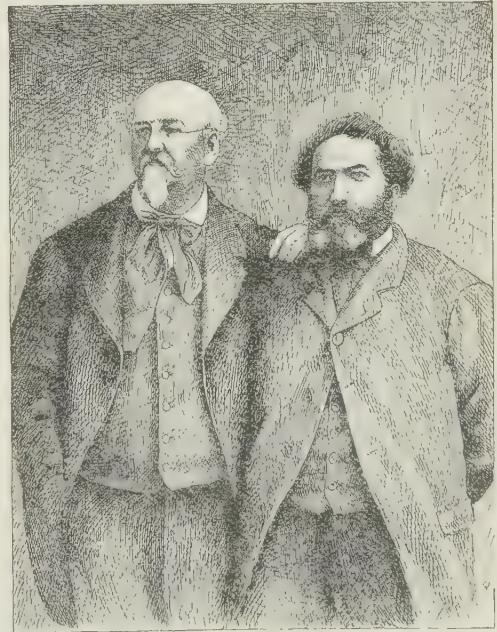
This feeling was so inexplicable in this world of evil and strife that he (Tolstoy) saw in it the light of the Supreme Being, and believed in it all his life. After he conceived of this belief in himself he gave up to it his life to the end, like Brand; and he completed his giving on the 25th of November [when he left his home for the last time].

A REMARKABLE LITERARY PARTNERSHIP

A VERY interesting article in *La Revue* of February 1 is that by M. Emile Hinzelin, entitled "The Truth about Erckmann-Chatrian."

What do French literary historians tell us about Erckmann-Chatrian? he asks. Absolutely nothing. Yet Erckmann-Chatrian is one of the most read, and after Hugo and Alexandre Dumas the author of most in demand at the people's libraries. Erckmann was born at Phalsbourg in 1822, and he died at Lunéville in 1898. Chatrian, his collaborator, died in 1886. Erckmann-Chatrian is described as one of the masters of the historical novel, yet the personages whom he makes live and speak before us are all invented. All his works are pervaded by the profoundest tenderness. Many a simple phrase becomes a secret and pure source of tears from the reader. He is a most impartial witness, and nothing escapes him. No one has surpassed him in depicting humble and poignant reality. Everywhere he shows the most spontaneous pity for the humble and lowly, especially if they are unhappy, as well as an ardent faith in the regenerating power of progress. Lorraine, Alsace, and the Vosges country are the localities he favors. The poet of the domestic hearth, he is also the poet of the wandering life. What to-day we call thought-transmission, hypnotism, auto-suggestion, all figure in his books.

Because of his remarkable clearness and his great love for the people, Erckmann-Chatrian is perfectly understood by the people. Never was a man more human. With every person in



THE LITERARY FIRM OF ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN

his native place he is on a footing of absolute equality. As to his language, he employs only some two or three hundred of the commonest words in use, but to impart perfect simplicity and absolute clearness to his work he worked with heroic tenacity. As soon as he had settled on a subject for a story he would ask his Paris bookseller to send him all the books which in any way had reference to it. From these he selected the most useful, and read

them as hastily as possible. Then he would inspect the country and live in it with his characters.

The writer gives a few notes of some of Erckmann's conversations. La Fontaine, he says, always remains young, and more and more true; he tells us when to smile, when to be moved, when to pardon. And with how much grace! One sees that he lived among charming and clever women, and that he profited by all they said and did not say.

Erckmann says he never enjoyed writing anything so much as "The Illustrious Dr. Mathews," and he knew the story was a good one. The work simply carried him along. Every author who would succeed should endeavor to find a subject which he could make his own. He also advises authors to write only to please themselves. It is impossible to achieve anything of value if one is always asking, Will this please this or that person? The author's only concern is to please himself. Erckmann wrote a number of stories about ill-treated Russians, but they were still unpublished when the Franco-Russian alliance was arranged, and he consigned them all to the flames. Though he is the poet of the war, he is also the poet of peace, and he preferred his peace stories. He liked best "The Confidences of a Clarinet Player." In "Friend Fritz" the idea of Suzel was taken from a Greuze picture, "The Bride," in the Louvre.

THE RÔLE OF CHATRIAN

Chatrian's work was to transcribe the stories and make small modifications, and then arrange with the publishers. When Erckmann as a youth was studying law at Paris he received from Phalsbourg an epistle in verse, in which the author compared himself

to an entrapped deer. On his return to Phalsbourg he met Chatrian, the writer of the poem, and learned that his father had been ruined. Erckmann possessed a little money, so he sent Chatrian to Paris to "place" in reviews or with publishers whatever he (Erckmann) was able to write in his "laboratory" at Phalsbourg. Together, Erckmann-Chatrian became a great name. They divided the profits, and each made a great fortune.

After a time Chatrian, who had been Erckmann's man of affairs, left Paris, and it became necessary to replace him. Erckmann entrusted his nephew, Alfred Erckmann, with the post. When Chatrian rendered his general account, he explained to Erckmann that as they had always shared the profits on the books they must also share the profits on the dramas derived from the stories by writers whom Chatrian had remunerated from Erckmann's share of the profits. This was agreed upon, but there were other errors in the account. The case was submitted to arbitration, and a sum of some 20,000 francs was restored to Erckmann, and everything seemed satisfactorily concluded.

Not long after there appeared in the *Figaro* an article signed by Georgel, Chatrian's secretary, accusing Erckmann of being a renegade and of having helped to amuse the German officers by singing and dancing "The Marseillaise" during the siege of Phalsbourg. Erckmann brought an action for libel, and easily cleared himself of the calumny. Chatrian's reason had already left him. "Prussian!" he cried; "to think I collaborated so long with a Prussian!" Georgel realized that he had been deceived, and though Erckmann forgave him, he never quite forgot the injury. Erckmann continued his work alone to the end, over ten years after Chatrian's death.

YOUNG TURKEY'S LESSON IN FRENCH DIPLOMACY

THERE is an old adage which runs, "What everybody says must be true." And when the same information concerning a particular incident in the diplomatic world comes from places so far apart, geographically and politically, as London and St. Petersburg, the correctness of such information may be reasonably assumed. The *Vyestnik Yevrópi* (St. Petersburg) recently had an article on "Turkish Loans and French Diplomacy," in which it related the failure of Young Turkey to obtain a loan from France. France

was willing to oblige the Porte, but it made a single stipulation which proved so serious a hindrance to the negotiations that they ultimately fell through. This proviso was that a French official be appointed to share in advising the Porte in financial affairs. Young Turkey had placed a higher rating than this on its financial standing among the nations; and Djavid Bey, the Turkish Minister of Finance, who had journeyed to Paris to arrange the loan, curtly declined the French proposal, and turned for aid to Germany.

In the St. Petersburg journal to which reference has just been made we read:

Of course the new constitutional Turkey, with a responsible ministry, is far more justified in demanding confidence in financial matters than was the Turkey of Abdül Hamid. Accordingly the French capitalists do not demand from her substantial security for loans — securities such as a charge on the tariff or on other sources of revenue, but are satisfied with a guaranty of economy in expenditures and of satisfactory accountancy, so painfully lacking in the old Turkish Government. The Young Turkish party, however, thought that even this guaranty would not be insisted upon, and she nursed the hope that, if necessary, she could raise the loan elsewhere than in France.

This hope proved to be illusory. The Austro-German banks offered instead of a real loan, an advance of £6,000,000 at 6 per cent. interest, for a period of six months only — a term so short that at its expiration Turkey must of necessity secure another loan, which will cost her in the end much more than an original long-term loan from France, the interest on which would have been only 4 per cent. The *Vyěstník Yevrópi's* comment upon the Paris money market as compared with those of the other European capitals, is as follows:

The German and Austrian banks cannot compete successfully with the Paris money market, which is the richest depository of free capital in continental Europe. The Turks will have to look to France for a loan; and the political prestige of both Austria and Germany cannot fail to be lowered in the eyes of Young Turkey by reason of this incident.

As pertinent to the subject the same journal cites the recent refusal of France to grant a loan to Hungary of 560,000,000 crowns (\$112,000,000) on the ostensible ground "that the Austrian Government had in certain instances allowed itself to trespass on French interests."

A British View

In the *Contemporary Review* (London) Dr. E. J. Dillon gives a much more circumstantial account of the Turko-French fiasco in the matter of the proposed loan. Dr. Dillon's sources of information are always of the highest and most comprehensive. He writes:

Young Turkey and Germany are at present fast friends, whom outsiders suspect of being secret allies. The alliance, however, is a legend. When the time comes for military action, Turkey will be left to judge for herself on which side, if either, it will be to her advantage to be found. That is all

that Germany wants: a willing, not a reluctant ally. Meanwhile, say what one will, the moral and political influence of the Kaiser and his subjects in Turkey is enormous.

The loan was, he says, the outward sign of Turko-German friendship. As to why France did not advance the money on acceptable terms, the main facts, as related by Dr. Dillon, are as follows:

Djavid Bey, on his arrival in the French capital, opened negotiations on the subject of the loan. Between the Ottoman Bank, which usually arranges Turkish loans, and the Turkish Finance Minister there was no love lost; for Djavid was a member of the board of directors of its rival, the bank founded a short time ago by Sir Ernest Cassel. When the Ottoman Bank declined, in December, 1909, to find money for Turkey without reasonable guaranties, the National Bank undertook to supply the sum and to take the mere word of the State as adequate guaranty. This year the experiment was tried again. Djavid's intention was to get a promise from the National Bank that it would obtain for him the money if, after having tried his luck with the regular money-lenders, he should find their terms too onerous. The terms on which the Ottoman Bank was willing to lend the money were reasonable; but to Djavid Bey, who wished to allow the bank no control over Turkish finances, they appeared unreasonable. His friend, Sir Ernest Cassel, probably advised him: "It would be a huge mistake to negotiate the loan out of France. If when all has been said and done, you cannot raise the money in France, then, of course, you may count on my bank to provide it."

This promise was all that Djavid Bey wanted. He listened to Sir Ernest's advice, and then, to use Dr. Dillon's words, "went forward rapidly and butted his head against the stone wall raised by M. Laurent." M. Laurent is the representative and adviser of the French Government in Constantinople. The gist of his message to Djavid Bey was something like this:

France, as you know, is actuated by genuine friendship for Turkey. . . . Thus last year we gave you money without counting it, so to say. . . . You were grappling with a set of conditions which were not of your own making. . . . We, accordingly, supplied you with the money you required. But we did not mean that to be used as a precedent.

Our next financial transaction had to be conducted on both sides with a thorough knowledge of the conditions. We had to know exactly how we stood, how high your credit had risen, and what your outlook was for the near future. Now all that implied acquaintance with your finances, and that is more than you or I possess. Can you tell me exactly the total of the floating debt? No, you cannot. . . . Last year you had a deficit. You then told us that the shortage was the result of your inheritance, and would not again occur; and we accepted your explanation and your promise. Since then a twelvemonth has elapsed, but

the revenue and the outlay are not evenly balanced. Again there is a deficit. And this time a much greater one than a year ago. The ratio of this shortage to the national revenue is about one-third. Now that, as you must admit, is enormous. And what makes it much worse is the circumstance that the expenditure in question represents money spent on military matters—therefore unproductively. You have not made any provision whatever for the cultural needs of the population, which are many and pressing. You lack a good system of administering justice. Again, education is a prime necessary of national life to-day. Yet you are withholding it from the nation for lack of funds. In lieu of speedy justice and elementary technical instruction, you are giving the people heavy guns, ammunition and useless warships.

If, then, we advance you more money, we must ask for guaranties. And when you object that the whole Ottoman Empire guarantees the loan, we answer 'No,' because the credit of the empire is not adequate, owing to the opinion prevalent abroad. The Ottoman Finance Minister, if he affirms that everything is in order and an era of national prosperity is about to begin, will speak to deaf ears, even though his statement represents solid facts. That may be unfair to Turkish ministers, but it is a fact and therefore must be reckoned with. Hence we ask that a foreign financier be appointed to advise the Ottoman Government, and as France is the nation that provides the

money we should esteem it a favor if a Frenchman were appointed. Let the Ottoman Bank take the matter in hand, and in due time the Ottoman nation will have good ground for self-congratulation.

Such was Monsieur Laurent's view, such his advice. It grated on the ear of the statesman who heard it. To the hypersensitive *amour-propre* of Young Turkey it was irritating. Djavid Bey soon found himself negotiating with financial institutions not of the highest class. Unsuccessful with these, he fell back on Sir Ernest Cassel and the National Bank; but the British Government stepped in and vetoed the promised loan by that institution. Nothing remained but to accept the assistance promised him by some German financial institutions, the net result being that in lieu of 11,000,000 Turkish pounds which Young Turkey would have received from the Ottoman Bank, she will receive from her German friends only 8,381,000 Turkish pounds—a severe enough lesson at the hands of French diplomacy even for the self-confident new régime at Constantinople.

THE IMMIGRATION SYSTEM OF ARGENTINA

NO country on earth seems to take better care of immigrants coming to its shores than does Argentina, according to the *Tiempo* of Buenos Aires.

The law of the Argentine Republic considers as immigrants not only steerage passengers but second-class passengers as well. Immediately after landing, immigrants are examined by an inspector of immigration, a physician from the Board of Health, and a representative of the naval prefecture. This commission ascertains whether all the regulations as to hygienic accommodations, food, number of passengers, fire appliances, etc., have been observed on board the ship. The immigrants themselves, furthermore, are invited to report any case of unfair treatment they may have observed during the passage.

They are then submitted to an examination as to the object of their voyage and their plans for the future. Those who desire to waive the advantages the immigration laws insure them are left to their own devices. The others are taken to the Immigration Hotel, where they are kept free of charge for five days. They are served every day a pound and a quarter of meat, a pound of bread, one quarter-pound of potatoes and other vege-

tables, one quarter pound of rice, one ounce of rye, and one half ounce of coffee.

The National Labor Department then helps the immigrant to find a position suited to his training and ability. Those of the newcomers who wish to locate in a certain part of the country are supplied with all available data as to labor conditions in that region. After making their choice they are forwarded, at the state's expense, by train or by boat to the particular spot where they are to settle. Special guides see to it that they reach their proper destination and are turned over to a local immigration commission which takes care of them and supplies all their physical wants for a period of ten days. This gives the newcomer time to find work at his special trade, and greenhorns are saved from the wiles of scheming sharks by which so many would otherwise be victimized.

The Department of Immigration of Buenos Aires has the most remarkable amount of statistical data on hand, for through its agency almost every immigrant is provided with a position. A complete record of the positions thus secured is kept, and one of the functions of that department consists in arbitrating all difficulties which may arise between the immigrant and his first employer.

IS IT REALLY REVOLUTION IN MEXICO?

THERE is probably no man in the United States who feels more strongly on the subject of Mexico, or can speak with more authority, than Carlo de Fornaro.

This gentleman, it will be remembered, is the artist-writer who, a year or so ago, was convicted of libeling one Espindola, a Mexican politician, and served a year in jail therefor.

Fornaro was the owner and editor of a Liberal paper in Mexico City, in which he kept up a vigorous campaign against the government for its alleged "despotic oppression." When he found he would be gagged, he left for the United States, and wrote his book, "Diaz, Czar of Mexico." President Diaz seized upon an unimportant passage and had Fornaro convicted by an American court for criminal libel of Espindola. It was charged at the trial that the big American interests and persons close to high American officials showed extraordinary zeal in helping Diaz convict Fornaro. Refusing all offers of pardon, Fornaro served his term of a year.

A series of articles by Fornaro, dealing with the conditions and events leading up to the present revolutionary movement, with the political status of the various parties in Mexico and with the international complications that have arisen or are likely to arise, are appearing in the new Socialist monthly, *The Masses*.

In the first article, which appears in this well-edited monthly in its issue for March, Fornaro sets forth his general thesis. As to President Diaz and his régime, the writer, naturally a partisan, says:

As long as Diaz was in complete possession of his physical and mental alertness, there was small chance of his defeat in the game of politics. Mexico seems to have had no man his equal in playing it. But as he aged, his splendid physique degenerated, he became senile, and he lost that wonderful grip he had had on men and affairs which is necessary for despotic rule. He remained the nominal autocrat, but the actual burden of government fell upon less sturdy shoulders than were Diaz's in his prime, and the result was that the beautiful bureaucracy he had organized became thoroughly demoralized. A tyrannical government at its best is odious to a modern civilized people. It is an anachronism, an anomaly, a monstrous relic of the past. But when to the general evils of a despotic form of government are added the mismanagement, the arbitrariness, and the blunders of incompetency, then it becomes intolerable. The people of Mexico grew more and more restless under the wrongs and persecutions of the bungling, inefficient coterie of officials and advisers with whom Diaz surrounded himself. And finally they broke out into a revolution.

After reviewing the political history of Mexico for the past couple of years, Fornaro has this to say of the American investments in the country, and how Diaz has used them:

When Diaz could not catch the political offenders in Mexico he followed them into the United



A BATTERY OF MEXICAN REGULARS

States, and flooded that country with spies and secret service men. He used the American government to pull the chestnuts out of the fire for him, and spent millions on literature extolling himself and his government. He sold concessions to foreigners, and gave away land to prominent Americans. He flattered, cajoled, and bought them until every foreigner, American or European, who had been befriended by him, became his great advertising medium at home and elsewhere. The legend of Porfirio Diaz went abroad like an echo that repeats itself. It is a stupid legend, absolutely devoid of meaning. The credit of Diaz's government was based entirely upon a fictitious peace and upon the ignorance of foreign investors concerning the real state of affairs in Mexico.

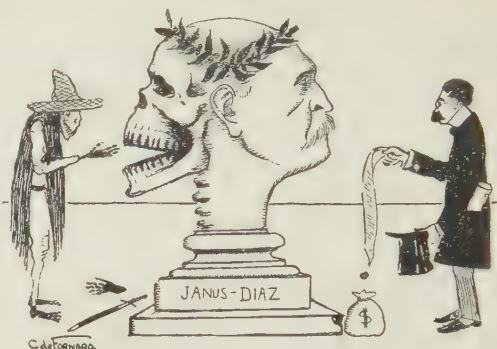
While the Mexican people fear the rule of Porfirio Diaz, they fear even more "the clique of financial buccaneers surrounding him."

This financial ring is called the *cientifico* party. *Cientifico* means scientific, and the party derives its name from its alertness in the gentle art of grafting. They have reduced graft to a science.

With the inauguration of Diaz's third term "a systematic policy of repression was begun."

This system can be compared only to the persecution of the Russian revolutionists by the Russian Government. All the Liberal newspapers, with the exception of the Catholic papers, have been suppressed, and the editors and members of the Reyist and Maderist clubs have been sent to prison or killed or forced to flee to the United States. But the Liberal movement could not be suppressed. The government succeeded only in fanning the flame of rebellion, until it broke out into a conflagration, and the logical outcome was an armed revolution.

Señor Fornaro believes that it is real revolution we are witnessing in the republic south of Texas, and that the *insurrectos* will never cease fighting until they have won for



FORNARO'S IDEA OF "THE DOUBLE-FACED DIAZ"
From *The Masses* (New York)

Mexico a truly modern government. While the "autocrat" in the Capital City is "deceiving himself with the belief that the rebels are being crushed," in reality the power of Diaz is already broken.

The bonds are falling, national credit is crumbling away, Diaz's army is beaten, outgeneraled, slowly going to its destruction; his friends, his compeers, his creatures are taking French leave. And there in the castle of Chapultepec the Grand Old Man still hangs on to his power with a bulldog's grip, giving orders to his subordinates to destroy the rebel army and shoot them all "red-handed." Then he sits down and weeps. Let him weep for once. He cannot in the short time of life still left to him—no, not even if he had a thousand lives to live—wash away with his tears the bloody stains upon his cruel, inhuman reign.



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MEXICAN INSURRECTOS IN A SKIRMISH WITH THE FEDERALS

A POSSIBLE, BUT PREVENTABLE, LEGACY OF THE PANAMA CANAL

IF the "proper authorities" concerned in the safeguarding of the public health will remember that "there is many a true word spoken in jest," and will take to heart the lesson conveyed by Mr. Forbes Lindsay in his storiette, "A Harvest of Tares," which appears in *Lippincott's*, that writer will have reason to congratulate himself on the service he has rendered humanity in general and the citizens of the United States in particular. The following prefatory note may be regarded as the foundation on which the tale is constructed:

Sir Patrick Manson, one of the world's great authorities on the transmission of disease by mosquitoes, recently declared in a public address: "My belief is that, if precautions are not taken in time, both of these diseases, yellow fever and malaria, will extend their range; that, with the opening up of the Panama Canal and by the repeated passage of rapid steamers across the Pacific, yellow fever will be introduced into Hawaii, Manila, and the continent of Asia."

The story begins with the ceremony of opening the Panama Canal, "as perfect a piece of work as the mind of man could conceive or the hand of man execute." The "greatest achievement in the history of the world" stands to the credit of the American people. From all parts of the earth have come thousands to witness the opening ceremony. The warships of all nations and many merchantmen are waiting to pass through the Canal on the day of its dedication to the world's traffic. The actual opening is thus forecasted:

As the sunrise gun boomed out on the morning of January 1, 1915, the President of the United States dropped his hand on an electric knob, and the huge gates of the Gatun Lock swung open. The procession moved forward, headed by the latest vessel of the United States Navy—the great battleship *Neverfunk*. With bands playing, and bunting blowing in the breeze, followed one after

another the representatives of the naval powers. Then came various merchant vessels, their crews manning the rigging and shouting themselves hoarse in their excitement. When the sun slid over the distant horizon, thirty-six keels had made the passage of the Panama Canal.

The next day, the *Pelham Castle* of London lay at La Boca, taking in cargo; and at sunset a stowaway slipped aboard.

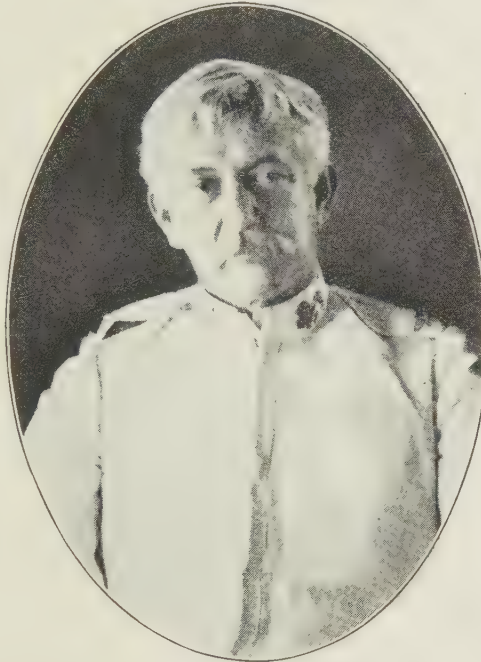
The stowaway was a mosquito, which quickly settled down to sleep through the ten days' voyage. Arrived in Manila the stowaway awakes, drops to the lighter which comes alongside to take off the cargo, and when the lighter enters the Pasig seizes the first opportunity to escape to the shore. The "subsequent proceedings" may best be described in the narrator's own words:

She was ferociously hungry, and ten thousand germs within her wriggled to be set free. She lit upon the first man she encountered and promptly buried her bill in his flesh. She sucked with the abandonment of starvation, and with languid delight felt her sides distending. The man was generally indifferent to mosquitoes, but this one was too intrusive to escape attention. He flung a hand to his neck, and the stowaway's travels

were brought to an abrupt termination. But her mission had been accomplished.

The man's name was Dunga Pat. He was a lascar. . . . That night he got unrestrainedly drunk and lay out upon the Luneta, where hundreds of mosquitoes battered on him without let or hindrance. The next morning Dunga Pat sailed with his ship for Hongkong. Two days out he had to take to his bunk. He died—the doctors disagreeing as to the cause at the quarantine station—but not before many mainland mosquitoes had derived nourishment from his blood.

The Manila mosquitoes which had feasted upon Dunga Pat may not have noticed anything unusual about their repast. Nevertheless, it was essentially different from anything that they or their kind in that part of the world had ever before experienced. These mosquitoes were *stegomyia*, the species which alone possesses the faculty of transmitting yellow fever. For the first time they



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COL. WILLIAM C. GORGAS
(Chief sanitary officer of the Canal Zone)

were impregnated with the virus of that disease, which had never before visited the Orient.

Soon the dreaded Yellow Jack "swept the Philippines like a whirlwind." Few of the doctors knew how to treat the scourge; and the people succumbed without a struggle. "Thousands died in Manila, and hundreds in every considerable town in the interior."

Hongkong had hardly heard with horror of the plight of the Archipelago when she found herself in the clutch of the fearful pestilence. Dunga Pat had barely been laid in the ground when one of the quarantine surgeons was stricken. In quick succession, one, two, three, of the hospital attendants were seized with the same symptoms. In a few days cases developed in the city, and the numbers of the victims rapidly ran into the tens and hundreds. Vessels shunned the port. Business was paralyzed. Those who could fled into the interior, but scarcely faster than the scourge pursued. "Come over and help us!" the cry went out to the experts of the New World.

At Panama Colonel Gorgas boards the steamer which is carrying Sir Patrick Manson to the scene. The malarial fever mosquito expert and the yellow fever mosquito expert meet in the smoking-room; and the following dialogue ensues. Projecting the finger of derision at the American expert, the Baronet cries:

"Ah, you mischief-makers! This is a pretty kettle of fish you've set a-boiling."

"I suppose we must plead guilty," replied Gorgas. "But I think that we can advance a plea of extenuating circumstances. You know we went a long way toward eradicating—"

"Why, there's the rub! Why the deuce didn't you go the distance, with the post in sight? Of

course I'm not sending that to your personal address, Colonel—I know what you would have done if they'd let you. We're both in the comfortable position of being able to say, 'I told you so.' We warned 'em years ago to look out for this."

"But what's to be the outcome, Colonel?" asked the Baronet.

"The worst, I fear. We can't hope to fight it down. It has firm foothold in the Philippines and China, and has probably been carried to Japan and India by this time. You know the conditions in those countries better than I do, Sir Patrick."

"Ah, yes! Congested cities; crowded villages; a tank water supply; dense superstition; long distances; and the devil knows what not. Every condition adverse—worse luck. The thing will spread from Kasauli to Colombo in no time. As for China—" He broke off with an eloquent shrug of the shoulders.

"Lord! Lord! What bunglers we are at best! Such a splendid chance gone for all time. The thing can never be wiped out now." And the Colonel sighed at thought of his suddenly dissipated dream of a world freed forever from yellow fever. He had seen it within the bounds of calculable possibility. If his advice had been taken, the thing would surely have been an accomplished fact ere then.

"Cheer up, Colonel!" cried Sir Patrick. "Let's hope for the best. Steward!"

The glasses having been filled, Sir Patrick toasts his fellow expert:

"Here's to the nation that blindly blunders into all sorts of scrapes and cheerfully flounders out of them. Here's to the nation whose monumental good luck and inexhaustible ingenuity never yet failed it in a tight place." And he added: "I can't believe that it is going to be downed by a mosquito, Colonel."

Only one short comment on Mr. Lindsay's admirable little skit is necessary: "A word to the wise is sufficient."

A FIVE-DAY ROUTE FROM EUROPE TO SOUTH AMERICA

ACCORDING to the latest news from the other side of the Atlantic, North American merchants, if they do not wish to lose their South American trade, will have to "stir their stumps." The United States consul-general at Frankfort-on-Main, Frank D. Hill, calls attention to a recent article in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* describing a quick route from Europe to South America by means of a railway to be constructed on the west coast of Africa. We read:

The Ibero-Afro-American railway, as proposed, will run along the western coast of Africa from the Straits of Gibraltar to Goree-Dakar or Bathurst—that is, to the point which is nearest South America. The crossing from Goree-Dakar or Bathurst to Pernambuco occupies only three days on the

quietest part of the Atlantic Ocean, always free from fog and ice. The crossing from Gibraltar to Africa, about 10 miles, can be made in less than half an hour and cars will probably be ferried across to avoid transshipment. The building of the projected railway will reduce the journey from Europe to South America to five days.

As the railway will follow the coast, it will be possible to begin work at several points at the same time; the cost of rights of way will be insignificant; and, judging from experience with certain building operations in Morocco, labor will be cheap. The cost of building such a road is estimated at \$135,000,000, or approximately \$75,000 a mile, the distance from Gibraltar to Goree-Dakar being about 1740 miles. If Bathurst should be

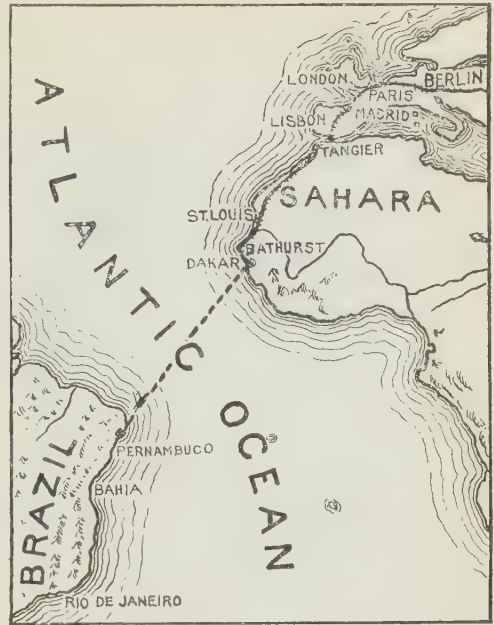
chosen as the terminus the road would be 125 miles longer.

The impetus which such a route would give to South American trade would be enormous. A large part of Morocco would be opened up; besides the West-African colonies of England and France. Also, the distance to the Kongo and to South Africa would be considerably reduced.

The project of the new railway was brought up by the Spanish representative at the Algeciras conference, and is now, according to the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, being pushed by a Spanish committee. The intention is to make the new road strictly international in character; and to this end, and to avoid possible conflicts between interested powers, it has been suggested by the committee that the Swiss Government take the initiative of calling a conference to study the subject and eventually to lead to the organization of an international company to undertake the construction of the road.

Germany is not so directly interested in the project as England, France, and Spain; but the new railway would assist her materially in developing her African colonies, and would, besides, augment her already rapidly growing trade with South America.

Expensive items in the construction of the railway would be material and its trans-



portation and supplies for the laborers. Portions of the route would have to be supplied with fresh water, and a permanent water supply would have to be installed throughout the line; but beyond these there are no natural difficulties to be surmounted.

THE REAL YELLOW PERIL—THE PLAGUE

THE so-called pneumonic plague, which made its appearance in Northern Manchuria during the closing weeks of the past year, has spread with great rapidity along the principal lines of transportation and travel, until last month it had become a serious menace, not only to China, but to Russia, to Japan, and to all the other countries of the Far East. A recent news despatch said:

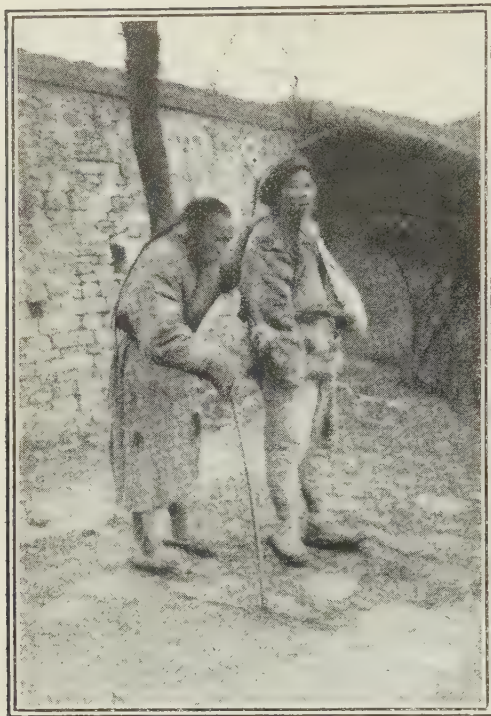
The plague has already entered Russian Siberia, and several cases have occurred in Blagovestchensk north of Harbin. The chief commercial centers of northern Manchuria are affected, the worst being Aschiho, with 500 victims every day. Plunder and plague go hand in hand. In every afflicted city bands of workless coolies assemble and rob towns, villages, and farms alike. Hulantchen, south of Harbin, is at present in the hands of one of these bands. The plague has put a complete stop to all kinds of business, and there are fears of a meat famine. The migration of Chinese into the Amur region is forbidden. All along the Russo-Chinese frontier Cossacks stand on guard, with orders to shoot any Chinese who refuse to be turned back from the frontier. China has already ex-

pended \$800,000 on relief and precautionary measures. The number of cases in Mukden is decreasing. Some 1500 more dead bodies have been cremated. In Tientsin the deaths to date have numbered forty. Peking is apparently clear of the disease in consequence of the vigorous action of the Government.

This plague, according to medical reports, is not the bubonic, but the pneumonic epi-



A MANCHURIAN PEASANT HUT IN THE PLAGUE AREA



PLAGUE-STRICKEN MANCHUS

demic. This pneumonic plague, says Dr. Sven Hedin, the Swedish explorer, in his new work, "Overland to India," is, in some respects, worse than the bubonic.

It is the form of disease which attacks the lungs, and is almost always fatal, because the microbes are there safe from the cells which destroy them. The doctor is more exposed to danger near such a patient than anywhere. All that is necessary to give him the disease is that the patient should cough and the smallest particles of expectoration light in the doctor's eye, where the microbes can thrive in moisture. If he has the smallest scratch in the conjunctiva, caused, for example, by a minute grain of sand, the microbes enter and do their work.

One of the doctors operating in Manchuria has died owing to a patient coughing upon him unexpectedly when he was unprepared.

Japanese and Russian official authorities are awake to the danger. Although there have been charges that the agents of the Mikado are using the crisis as an excuse for acquiring "control" over certain Chinese territory, the testimony is quite general to Japan's progressive and disinterested fighting of the plague. Although superstitious methods still exist in remoter parts of Japan, the educated class believe and practice the most advanced methods of medical science.

In the war with Russia the diseases which usually decimate armies were kept at bay. At the present moment railway carriages on the Japanese section of the Trans-Siberian Railway are being disinfected in the most thorough manner with the latest disinfectants by the Japanese medical staff, who superintend the operations with their noses, ears, and mouths covered with cotton wool.

How the Disease Spreads

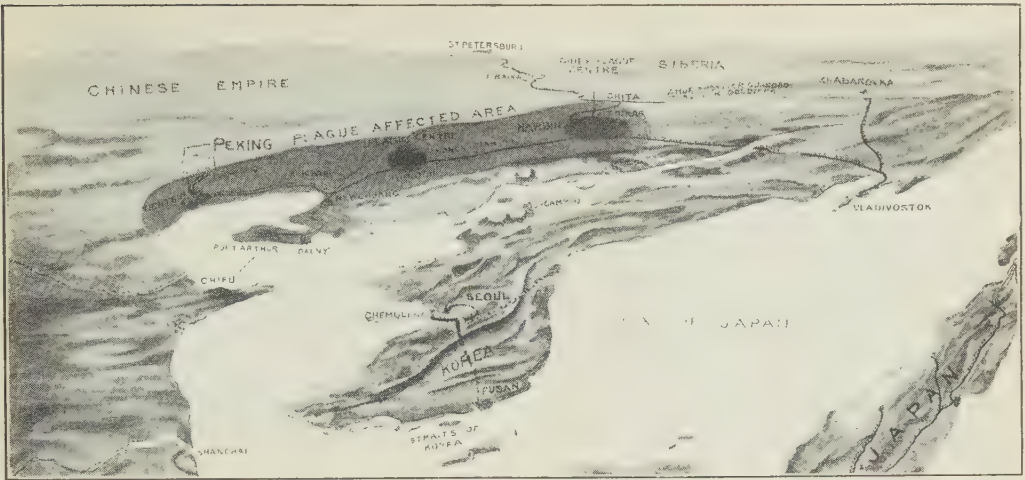
As to the origin of this plague, the *North China Herald* (Shanghai) says, in a recent issue:

It is supposed to have originated among Chinese employed in hunting an animal known in the native dialect as "Han T'a," resembling, but larger than, a marmot. The skins were being collected by a trader for export to America, and in spite of the fact that this animal is held to bear the same relationship to the form of plague endemic in Mongolia that the rat bears to bubonic plague, the Chinese not only collected the skins, but used the animals for food as well. They proved by their habits and absence of physique excellent subjects for plague, while the conditions under which they lived supplied the means for propagating the disease. The epidemic is understood to have made its appearance first in northwestern Manchuria, south of Kharil on the Chinese Eastern Railway. Steps were taken to cope with it by the Russian authorities as soon as it reached the towns on the line, but failure to regard it as seriously as the conditions warranted, and the indifference of the Chinese in that region to all considerations of hygiene and to ordinary precautions against the disease, allowed the plague to spread. It has now taken such a hold upon the country that even the Chinese official has been stirred to action, while the people at large, in their helplessness and ignorance, either submit passively to its ravages or blindly seek to escape from the sphere of infection. The danger to other parts of China lies in the possibility of free access being afforded to inhabitants of the infected area. For this reason the vigorous measures now being adopted in the north to draw a cordon round central and northern Manchuria must meet with general approval, and it will be hoped that they will achieve the desired end.

A Russian Warning

Mr. N. S. Arevief, who was commissioned by the City Council of Harbin, which is under Russian government, to make a study of plague conditions along the river Sungari, has written a letter of warning to the Russian people, which is published in the St. Petersburg journal, the *Reitch*, partly as follows:

To you, gentlemen, who are living in tranquil security in the far distance, I feel impelled to cry out, "Be on your guard!" The black death is at your door as well as at ours. Give attention to the things that are happening in Manchuria, even



THE PLAGUE-AFFECTED AREA IN THE FAR EAST

(Adapted from a map appearing in the *London Sphere*)

though they are beyond the limits of your actual vision. The streets, the fields, and the ice of the rivers here are strewn with plague-infected corpses. The ignorant Chinese, who are incapable of understanding the nature of the disease or the danger attending it, conceal their sick, and either hide the bodies of their dead, or throw them out to be eaten by dogs in the fields or on the ice of the rivers. In the spring these dead bodies will be carried down

to the Amur and thence to the ocean. The whole civilized world has commercial relations with Manchuria, and it is in duty bound to join in the fight against this terrible epidemic. With the beans or the wheat that foreigners import from here, they may receive death. There should be international action now, in winter, before the rivers open and spread the disease by carrying down-stream the infected bodies of the dead.



CHINESE REFUGEES ON THE BORDER

(Russian troops guard the Siberian-Chinese frontier and turn back all fugitives)

THE GERMAN POLICE DOG AND WHAT HE DOES

DR. H. GROSS, Professor of Criminal Law at the University of Gratz (Austria), very early expressed the belief that the dog may prove to be of considerable usefulness to the policeman and the officer of public security. That was about 15 years ago. Since then the German Government has taken the matter up, has investigated and experimented in its usual thorough manner, and to-day over 400 police stations in German cities are provided with so-called police dogs (*Polizeihunde*).

The results obtained with these four-legged detectives has created an interest in them that is growing and spreading constantly,—in Germany as well as in foreign countries. Only recently the Japanese sent a commission of dog experts to Berlin, to study the police dog system with a view of introducing it in their own country. Quite a number of books have been written on the subject of training these dogs and on practical experiments by which to test their ability, not only in Germany, but in several other countries as well.

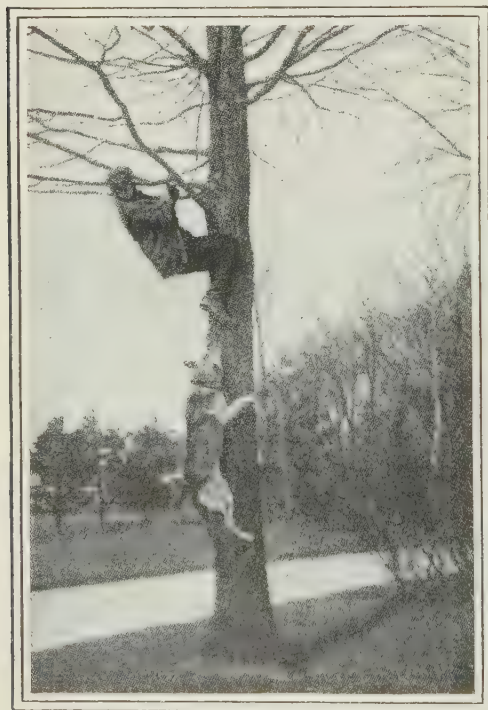
Shepherd dogs and several species of terriers are mostly used as police dogs. Their training is a difficult and tedious process, but

when completed it makes the police dog a far more useful animal than the American blood-hound. The police dog will follow his master on his round, will call his attention to anything suspicious, will locate hidden vagabonds, will hold a fugitive at bay and guard him during transportation, will defend his master against an attack, will rescue the drowning, hunt for lost articles, carry messages to the police station and return with an answer; in fact, he will display almost human intelligence, and his service will often be of greater help to his master than that of one or even two policemen. Experience has shown that an inconsiderate and curious crowd is the worst enemy of the police dog and the best ally of the criminal. Through untimely interference, a crowd often makes it extremely difficult, nay impossible, for the dog to operate successfully. The training of the public is therefore of the same importance as that of the dog, if the animal is to be made efficient in his work.

In a series of illustrations accompanying an article in *Reclam's Universum* (Leipzig), from which we have digested the foregoing paragraphs, the police dog is shown at work. We see how he is set on the track, how he follows a track, takes a stone wall nine feet high, jumps over a solid board fence that offers no foothold whatever, clings to his man under difficulties and even climbs a tree to get hold of the fugitive.

The following occurrence shows how a police dog of the German capital procured the evidence necessary for the conviction of the criminal, which human skill had been unable to obtain:

In a village near Berlin fruit had frequently been stolen from different orchards. The police dog, Prinz, sent from Berlin to "work up the case," followed the track of the thief from the orchard to a pile of manure and then to a tenement house occupied by a number of imported farm hands. Taken into the house the dog crept under a bed in the last room he entered and brought forth a shirt and a paper bag full of gooseberries. He then was taken out to the field where the residents of the tenement house were at work and immediately located the owner of the bed. Investigation showed that the shirt belonged to another workman, from whom it had been stolen together with 30 marks wrapped up in it. The stolen money was found in the manure pile. The suspected farm hand confessed both the stealing of the fruit and of the money.



"PRINCE," A BERLIN POLICE DOG, "TREEING" A CRIMINAL

Simply marvelous must have been the intelligence of the police dog which, not long ago, met a crying little girl in the street, took



GERMAN POLICE OFFICERS WITH DOGS

the scent from her, went back on her track, and a few minutes later returned with the dollar that the little girl had lost. Another dog brought about the arrest and conviction of a safe-blower who had left no other trace behind him than a few matches that he had lighted. Many other striking illustrations might be cited.

GARDENING—A KINGDOM OF HAPPINESS

IF, with the approach of spring, the gentle art of gardening does not gain many new devotees, it will not be the fault of Mrs. Margaret Deland, who in *Country Life in America* writes of "The Joys of Gardening" in such a delightful vein as to make one long for the days when one can handle hoe, spade, or rake, and emulate the example which she has so successfully set. After poking a little fun at Madam Cræsus, who has to ask her lord gardener the name of this or that plant, who "can't go down on her knees on the damp earth" because she wears an embroidered gown—"a poor creature who has paid somebody to take joy out of her hands—actually paid him to dig and perspire, to mourn, to rejoice for her," and who "can never have the faintest idea of what a garden means," Mrs. Deland observes that "as the handicap of wealth lessens, the climb to happiness begins." And by and by the top is reached—"a top of hope. In fact, hope is the first blessing that a garden grants." There is nothing on earth, Mrs. Deland thinks, that "encourages hope more persistently and illogically than does a garden." The creatures of hope are easily recognizable by their deeds. Here is a picture of them:

They are they who weed in the burning sun; who, to gain for their seedlings some hours of cool

darkness before subjecting them to the next day's heat, transplant by the light of a candle or a friendly moon; who, with shrinking thumb and forefinger, strip the roses of millions of aphids, or shake powdered sulphur over mildewed leaves—and brush it out of their own hair afterward; these are they who cut sods with a dull spade and scant breath, dig deep holes in which to plant their perennials; nay, who stagger along with a wheelbarrow full of malodorous dressing which must be put into the holes first; these have been on their knees for hours pulling up witch-grass and sorrel; they have used bad words about cut-worms—yes, and about seedmen whose seeds did not come up. These persons, sunburned, moist of forehead and upper lip, with a crick in their backs, with dew-soaked skirts, with unanswered letters heaped on their desks, with calls unmade—these, and only these, understand the joy of a garden. They have, through much tribulation, entered the Kingdom of Gardening.

Mrs. Julia Ward Howe once said that, when it came to art, "inspiration was perspiration"; and the same may be said about gardening: "happiness is—perspiration." "When you think how much there is to do even in a little garden—if you are stingy enough to keep all the work to yourself—it is obvious that, from frost to frost, happiness need never end." Then there are the seedmen's announcements to feed the flame of hope. One never loses belief in these "maddening, beguiling catalogues that begin to pile up on tables and desks about the first of

February." We go on "believing—and buying"; and when we do this "it is evident that besides hope the garden is cultivating in us the noble virtue of trust in our fellow men." And when our flowers and plants fall measurably short of the promises held out in the catalogues; when, for instance, the *Lilium sulphureum*, described so glowingly as reaching nearly a foot in length, attains but four inches we decide "it must have been our own fault because we planted it too deep, and we resolve to try again next spring." Thus, "besides hopefulness and trust, the garden develops in the gardener humility."

In April, the fourth garden blessing is de-

veloped, namely, patience. Says Mrs. De land:

Up in Maine we learn this lesson especially when we sow our seeds. We plant them, and that very night we lie awake to listen to the spund of rain on the roof, and think of the seeds lying in the warm darkness of the newly dug, fragrant earth; we feel the thrill of life that begins to stir in them; it is so exciting that the very next morning some of us are so weak-minded as to rush out to see if something hasn't sprouted!

And if the seeds do not come up at all, it will only "make us work harder next year; and the harder the gardener works, the happier he is."

IDEAS ABOUT WOMEN

WE are inclined to think of our women as Sir Charles Adderly thought of the farmers of Warwickshire, namely, that they are "the best breed in the world." That this smug, Angelican complacency is but a blindness which insists on a superiority that does not exist, is the contention of several prominent writers on social and ethical problems. Marian Cox, whose astounding book, "The Crowds and the Veiled Woman," was a literary sensation of the past year, writes in the *March Forum* a stinging satire on the American women of wealth and social position. It is a brilliant sketch of the arrangement of an international marriage between Cynthia Marlowe, an American heiress to many millions, and Prince Dolmar, a fortune-hunting nobleman.

THE WOMAN IN PROFILE

All goes well, the contracts are signed, the dowry agreed upon, even the wedding ceremony rehearsed, when, without reason, Prince Dolmar shuts himself within his rooms and refuses to see his fiancée. A friend and adviser, Sidney Waite, who has backed his pursuit of American dollars, seeks him out to discover the reason for his action. Prince Dolmar confesses that he is at last in love, hopelessly, irreparably in love, with a woman whom he does not know, and whom he has only seen from the window of his apartment,—the "Woman in Profile." In excuse for his conduct he begs his friend to look from the window upon her beauty. Across the court that separates Prince Dolmar's suite from another building, they gaze at the profile of a ravishingly beautiful woman who is sitting in a window.

In the description of this impossible creature, Mrs. Cox permits herself to soar away into the domain of the exotic. The "Woman in Profile" is—"impassive as though sculptured and yet aglow with the tints of life"; her tresses "cradle each other in a slumbrous vivacity like that of coiled serpents, her lashes lay like a black butterfly upon her cheek." The story turns to satire by the timely discovery of the friend that the charmer of Prince Dolmar is only a beautiful wax dummy, the plaything of an elderly and eccentric nobleman. The Prince then returns to his heiress with the remark that, "after all," this nobleman is "the only happy man, because no one has disturbed his illusions." His friend advises him to turn his eyes in the future upon the only woman-in-profile upon whom it is "safe to found a romance, the woman on the American dollar." Apropos of this, the author asks concerning the American woman: "Is there more than a profile to her? Or is she really a metallic goddess blank on the other side? There is something about her so callous and yet so artificial, so piquantly naïve and yet so poseuse." Mrs. Cox in her description of the heiress, Cynthia Marlowe, summarizes the symptoms of the insidious disease that has attacked the American woman of exalted position.

Cynthia Marlowe in personality was stanch, sallow and strident; and affected the extreme of smartness in attire and manner. She had watchful eyes, an indiscreet mouth unable to close over its stores, and a shapely nose, whose nostrils had each a little nick in them, as though worn there by her constant scenting for victims for snubs. In character, she was the typical American woman as the possession of great wealth evolves her. She was enpanoplied in suspicion regarding everything

of her own nationality and was so much like all her social compatriots that her chief aim in life was to distinguish herself from them. Thus she expended her energies and time in a calculating vigil of life. She was vigilant against any abrogation of her wealth and social position, a thing so precarious in the headless chaos of New York society that its quest wholly consumes the feminine nature in futile strife with each other, and refused to know any one whose limitations of purse or visiting list opened them to the suspicion of wanting something from her. Americans want so much that they cannot tolerate any want in another. But vigilance absorbed only a portion of her energies; the rest was expended in calculations as to ways and means of procuring more self-aggrandizement.

She was a patronizer of the arts, like all the ambitious plutocrats of her country, but not a patron: that is, she would give a surplus of admiration or money to any form of art or artist already in their ultimate of rank, beyond any need of her or of others, but had no more perception or regard for the uncirculating mintage of art's gold than has a cowslip for a comet. Philanthropy, also, she adopted; for it was fashionable and kept her name and picture in the papers; but she made her secretary select all the philanthropies to which she so liberally contributed and protect her vigorously from learning, reading or hearing anything about them. She had now been out five seasons in New York society and had concluded that no fields to conquer were there,—everything was too readily and exclusively accorded to the open sesame of wealth. She resolved upon a marriage that would transplant her into vast alien spheres, whose reluctance to absorb her would stimulate all her energies and faculties. This is the secret of the American woman's love of deracination. She must have something to overcome; some antagonism to arm her. The Father of her Country is suitably emblazoned by an axe and this little implement dancing in her corpuscles is the root of her *wanderlust* and activities.

Another Viewpoint

Professor J. Laurence Laughlin's article "Women and Wealth," in *Scribner's* for February, is by no means satirical; it is intelligently analytical of the conditions that surround the American woman of superior resource. He notes that, along with the phenomenon of desire for distinction that invariably accompanies affluence, we have a great shifting of standards and lowering of ethical ideals. In his own words:

In this pitiful social climbing, in this devastating social rivalry, in which certain requirements have the force of tyrannical despotism, and in which character dwindles to the unconscious imitation of what is supposed to be "the thing," the quality or many well-to-do women is very plainly deteriorating. Among them courses of action, personal estimates are not based on conscious reflection, on tests of right and wrong, on a judicial balancing of right and wrong, but almost entirely on what "others will think"; that is, on the tyranny of chance opinion in the social set, which they value more than their own souls.



MRS. MARIAN COX

(Who has written satirically on the woman question)

Professor Laughlin attributes this deterioration of women of wealth to their attitude of mind, which out of its emptiness and selfish idleness asks, "What am I getting out of life?" not "What am I putting into it?" Nor does he think this condition of mind, this weakening of moral fiber confined by any means to women alone; the idle sons of the very rich are not more immune from this subtle degeneracy than the idle daughters. In a broad sweep of perspective he brings the responsibility back in large measure to the husband and the father, for the ethical standards of the wife and the sons and daughters are colored to no uncertain degree by the ethical standards of the husband and the father. The American man of wealth has abundantly looked after the physical need of the American woman, but he has left her mind and soul to take care of themselves. If she preys upon man with her false standards of vanity, extravagance and foolish emulation, it is man who must shoulder part of the blame, for he has instilled into her shallow, childlike mind these same predatory instincts.

Professor Laughlin does not think the remedy for this state of affairs can exist either in woman suffrage or in a change of government; he looks with serene hopefulness to the dissemination of higher ideals and the subsequent regeneration of society. Just so long as we continue to insist that we are

the "best breed" in the world, just so long as we have not a tenderness of conscience and a humility of spirit, we are in danger of losing what the catechism terms "our immortal souls." There are but few who can steady themselves in this busy age and look upon life with anything akin to clear vision. To those who can, however, there is no fear of the permanent deterioration of the American woman. To quote Mr. Laughlin again: "As yet the human race seems unable to keep

its virility when given unlimited satisfactions. Fortunately riches are not universal, and the mass of mankind are under the spur of necessity to high thinking because it is essential to their material existence. Fortunately, also, it lies in the power of each woman to decide for herself whether she will be weakly swept along by the prevailing current of self-indulgence or whether she will rise to the responsibility of setting higher the ethical standards of our social life."

A POLITICAL EXECUTION IN A RUSSIAN PRISON

A DRAMATIC portrayal of a Russian political execution, by Leonide Semenov, is printed in the *Open Court*; and prefixed to it is the following note by the late Count Leo Tolstoy, dated January, 1910:

The account which follows shows, it seems to me, remarkable literary workmanship. It is full of feeling and artistic imagination. It should be given the widest publicity. This wish of mine recalls a conversation which I once had with Ostrovsky, the dramatist. I had just written a play, "The Contaminated Family," which I read to him, remarking that I should like to see it published as soon as possible. He thereupon replied: "Why, are you afraid people are going to become more intelligent?" These words were quite to the point in this matter of my poor play. But in this other matter the situation is quite different. To-day nobody can help hoping that men may become more intelligent and that the horrors described below cease, though there is little reason to believe that such will be the case. Hence it is that I esteem most useful every word raised against what is now going on in Russia.

LEO TOLSTOY.

The narrative of the execution opens with a description of the prison, with "the same walls, the same barred windows, the soldiers lolling about, smoking, telling stories, and laughing."

The political prisoners were in a nervous state. Now they would go pacing forward and back in their narrow cells; then, on a sudden, they would tremble, would listen to what was going on, and then begin once more their endless, aimless tramp. And all around them was hideous,—the dirty walls of the prison and the awful stench.

There are five victims in all. One is an engineer; a second is a young college boy of eighteen; another is one Klemenkine, a man of southern type with a fine face and thick hair; a fourth, the son of a deacon; and the other a workman.

The engineer sighed and threw himself down on

the boards which served as a bed. He was a tall, thin man with high cheek bones and weary, sad eyes. His nerves were unstrung and his whole body worn out. One thought never left his head, where it clung most pertinaciously.

During the past few days he had tried with all his strength to put away from him all feeling. He had become quite indifferent to death,—"a slight necessary operation," he would often say to himself while smoking a cigarette. "And afterward, what? Nothing."

So the engineer would read and smoke. Then he would pace his cell to begin reading again.

The disgust and terror of the officials themselves are thus depicted:

The night of this same day, when the condemned men were waked up for execution, all the officials who were to take part in the lugubrious affair were seized with a feeling of terror and anguish. The sub-director of the prison, a young officer on duty that night, with a very handsome and somewhat effeminate face, while hastening through the prison's somber passageways, lighted by little petroleum lamps, felt much as he used to feel as a child when alone in the woods, trembling at every sound, at every tree, as though they boded danger. He imagined now that a thousand invisible and terrible eyes were staring at him from every side, surprising him in the act of committing a base and terrible crime. He had just been appointed sub-director, and this was the first time he was to take part in an execution.

In the middle of the night the prisoners are aroused from their bunks, pale and tired. They look dazedly about them. They are ordered to make haste. Everybody wants the terrible business over as rapidly as possible. The engineer had fallen asleep. He had smoked so much during the day that his nerves were overexcited. When called, he started up and ran his fingers through his hair. He said to himself, "Only death remains and then all is ended. A little operation, that is all." He would have liked to tarry; but the soldiers yell: "Get ready. Hurry!"

The prisoners are hurried to the prison registry to have their names taken. They walk like somnambulists, between two rows of soldiers. The most terrified was the young college boy, who was sobbing in spite of his evident efforts not to break down. At length he stammers, almost in a whisper, "I—I want a priest." Whereupon the deacon's son exclaims with an oath, "I want a cigarette." A feeling of pity comes over the engineer; and he says to the officer: "Would it not be best to hang the boy first? I am ready to wait. It will be easier for the child." Then comes the final act.

It was a terrible scene. Tears were in all eyes. All felt that it should be ended. So the hangman seized the lad the first, who then suddenly became silent and swooned.

While entering the courtyard, the engineer had urged that everything possible should be done for the boy, and when he saw that there were five scaffolds, he grew still calmer. Again the old feeling of the littleness of everything took still stronger hold upon him so that the sobs of the boy no longer touched him. He knew that they were all

going to die, that in a moment all would be over, both tears and what produced them. Twice he looked up at the starry heavens, and the stars seemed to tell him the same thing. For the last time he drew into his lungs a long draught of the cold fresh air and then he himself kicked away the stool on which he was standing.

Klemenkine, enervated and deeply affected by this scene of the college boy, yelled at the top of his voice and shouted out that this act would never be pardoned these "villains and brutes."

At this imprecation, the Judge Advocate and all the others trembled. But they said nothing, knowing that the hour for discussion had ended.

The workmen shook with cold, and the son of the deacon tried to say something, but his eyes were haggard and no words would come.

* * * * *

Twenty minutes later, twenty long minutes, during which the Judge Advocate and the others stamped about impatiently in the snow, they turned away from the hanging men, freezing with cold. The young officer and the director looked at their watches. The doctor, wrapped in his cloak, moved from one corpse to the other hastily feeling their legs, though scarcely touching them. Then he murmured:

"Yes, they are all dead, quite dead. We can go now, and I will sign the document to this effect."

ENGLISH ARISTOCRACY FROM A GERMAN POINT OF VIEW

THE leading article in a recent issue of Maximilian Harden's weekly, the *Zukunft*, gives a spirited survey of the present status of the English aristocracy. The writer points to the striking fact that, in spite of all the Government's engines having been directed against the House of Lords, twice within a year the Liberal majority has remained about the same, indicating the hold—though a waning one—that the nobility still has upon the English people. He contrasts this feeling with that prevailing in Prussia toward the Junker, who, under similar circumstances, would have been overwhelmingly defeated.

The reform year 1832 left the Upper House what it was when the first royal writs summoned the lords of the soil to represent their feudatories—a Senate with the good and the bad features of a strictly privileged body. England's nobles have in the centuries which have wrought such vast changes in their own and other lands, scarcely altered their mode of life.

Poggio-Bracciolini, the papal secretary, writing four hundred years ago, upon a visit to England, remarked that the English aristocracy disdained to live in towns but did not disdain to reap profits from husbandry, and were inclined to recognize

the very rich as belonging to the highest class. It is just about the same to-day. Their visits to town are not so rare, its attractions being greater. They may be seen in season at the opera, the Derby, etc.,—even at times in Parliament, where no one is surprised to find but half a dozen lords transacting the business of the day in conversational tones. Their power is still most strongly rooted in the country-seats, the homes of their ancestors, where every foot of soil is rich with their memories.

In wealth the British peerage "compares with that of Rome."

Fifty years ago the Dukes of Richmond, Bedford, and Sutherland were credited with an income of from four to six million marks [\$1,000,000 to \$1,500,000], and it was said that the Marquis of Bredalbane could ride with a swift horse thirty-three hours in a straight line without crossing the boundary of his domains. Lord Northampton owns 250 acres of land in London and the Duke of Westminster nearly 400 acres; while the Duke of Norfolk's property on the Strand is said to yield him a yearly income of over a million pounds sterling. These are the crowning points, but riches are plentiful below them, too. Senatorial wealth does not necessarily imply senatorial arrogance and exclusiveness—England's nobility, as a whole, has never in a niggardly spirit shirked its social duties. Nor have they disdained to mate with rich heiresses of the bourgeoisie or to accept fat benefices. Instead of cursing the evolution which gives the nation new strength, like the leading Ger-

man landed nobility, and decrying it as the forerunner of revolution; instead of bewailing the rapid rise of industry, the increased abandonment of country life, labor agitation, etc., the peers apprentice their sons to great merchants, with the result that they benefit by the new movements.

There has happened in England what always happens when a right outlives the glory which gave it birth, continues this writer.

The privileges of a caste whose achievements gradually faded from memory, became onerous. Because the nobility realizes this it prevailingly favors a daring policy which may enable its members to shed new luster on their names as soldiers or diplomats. The country has reaped even greater benefits from this eagerness for expansion than the aristocracy itself. But rancor ceases in face of fine achievement. The Briton regards envy as the meanest of vices. He can look without jealousy at his richer neighbor, thinking the plain man with a moderate wage, right treatment, an occasional holiday, not so badly off after all. And, finally, class distinctions there must be: as in the family, so in the state—men who are not bound and harrowed by necessity, men taught by spotless family tradition to rule and conduct affairs. Even in the latter days of Victoria a man like Proudhon, with his idea of equal property, small holdings, would have found no hearing. Since then, after a long period of peace (the Boer War added little glory to the nobility), faith in the use of an aristocracy has waned. Its most conspicuous members are idlers who have married for money and care nothing for the public welfare. What has become of the army under their lead was shown in the Transvaal. Kinship to a duke opens the way to high places in the Government. Slowly, under the influence of Socialist criticism and increased political demands, public sentiment is changing. Not much more is to be reaped from foreign parts. The navy and the army involve an

annual expenditure of about \$500,000,000. The rich, backed by the House of Lords, protest against new taxation, and the taxes will not—as in former days in spite of martial equipment—be lowered. Asquith had dared to proclaim that the nation will no longer submit to being divided into three classes, two of which, the bourgeoisie and the proletariat, groan under a shameful yoke.

Twice within a year the same Liberal majority! To estimate how remote even to-day such a thing as a fierce aversion to the hereditary nobility is in a Briton, we must imagine what would happen in Prussia should William's ministers, as did George's, summon the people to battle in strident tones resounding through the land, backed by all the Government agencies. The Junker, whose achievements for his country certainly equal those of the English nobility, would, with the most strenuous efforts, save perhaps a dozen seats in the Landtag.

A nobility that in such a storm was not torn by its roots from the popular favor must have retained a political sagacity almost unprecedented in history. The House of Lords is much the same as in the days of Edward I; it is still wide open to the heads of the nobility and church dignitaries. The Lords need only to declare themselves in favor of Home Rule—they could then retain a part of their veto power. For without the Irish votes Asquith can accomplish nothing against them; and the Irish, if self-government with a Parliament in Dublin were granted them, would, as conservative landowners, have no interest in curtailing the power of the peers. This certainty might to a Tory genius point the way to a new salvatic before the winter's close; the Tory party, however, lacks a statesman of that caliber.

AN ILLUSTRATION OF JAPANESE COURAGE

EDUARDO HERVEA DE LA ROSA, attaché of the Spanish Legation in Tokyo, has communicated to the *Revista General de la Marina* of Madrid, an extraordinary document found in the pocket-book of Ensign Sakuma who died from suffocation with all the crew of Submarine No. 6 when his craft failed to come to the surface in the course of maneuvers on the coast of Suwa several months ago. It illustrates fittingly the grim determination and scorn of death which Japanese soldiers have always displayed in the hour of danger. It begins thus:

This is the testament of Sakuma, officer in command. I really have no excuse for having let one of His Majesty's submarines sink and for having, out of carelessness, cut short the life of my subordinates. Every member of the crew has faith-

fully fulfilled his duty and proceeded with his various tasks in perfect calm until the hour of his death. We are dying for our country, doing our duty, and therefore have nothing to regret. The only thing I am afraid of is that this accident may be misrepresented and may hamper the development and progress of the submarine type of vessels. I beseech my superiors and my colleagues to go on working with zeal and not to misinterpret this accident, but, on the contrary, to study as carefully as possible the development and progress of the submarine. Then we will have nothing to regret.

The document then proceeds to explain with all technical details the causes of the accident and describes the process of gradual disruption of the ship by the pressure of the sea. We quote further:

Water is flowing in and the men are wet and cold. I have always advised the crew to attend

to the most insignificant details, to retain their self control and to work with energy. It may be that some people will laugh at my words after this accident, but I am convinced that I am right. . . . The dial on the tower indicates a depth of 52. Although we have done our best to pump out the water there has not been any change since twelve o'clock. . . . The depth here must be about ten fathoms. . . . I don't think I am mistaken. . . . The officers and crew of submarines must be selected among men of great courage and superior qualities; otherwise they would encounter many difficulties in cases of this kind. . . . Fortunately, every man on board of this submarine has done his duty. . . . I am satisfied. Every time I left home I expected to meet death, and that is why my will is now in one of the drawers of my dresser in Karasagi. (It deals only with private affairs which I need not mention.) Mr. Taguchi Asami please be kind enough to send it to my father.

The document closes with these sentences:

OFFICIAL TESTAMENT. With the deepest reverence I beseech his Majesty to bestow his high protection so that the families of my subordinates do not find life too much of a burden. . . . This is the only thought which worries me. . . . My regards to the following gentlemen (I hope to be excused if I do not name them in the proper order): Minister Saito; Rear Admiral Shimamura; Rear Admiral Fujii; Captain Nawa; Captain Yansashita; Captain Nahita. (The air pressure increases and I feel as though my eardrums were ready to burst.) Captain Ojuri; Captain Ide; Lieutenant Matsumura (Junichi) Captain Matsumura (Kiku) he is my older brother; Captain Furra Koshi; Professor Nalita Gotaro; Professor Ikuta Kokinji; . . . Twelve thirty, breathing extremely painful . . . I thought the gasoline had blown out; but now I am being upset by the gasoline . . . Captain Nacano. . . . It is now twelve forty. . . .

WHAT PRIVATE PROPERTY REALLY IS

PREMIISING that a population may be divided into three classes, dependents, spenders, and savers, and setting aside the first two, Dr. William Kerby in the *Catholic World* discusses the organization of property from the standpoint of the individual saver. He posits:

Some thrifty soul saves \$500. What is to be done with it? It is not worth much for purposes of investment in land, in the hope of an unearned increment. It is not worth much to start an independent business unless the saver borrow some more. He may, it is true, buy a little fruit stand or venture to open a tiny grocery store, but he probably lacks the knowledge and experience necessary to make either venture a success. Any particular thing to which our saver could turn his hand and work efficiently with \$500 would be exceptional rather than typical. The course that presents itself to him as most feasible is to deposit it in a bank or to buy some kind of industrial security, known as stocks or bonds. He does this, and tens of thousands of others do it, until the tiny streams of saving become great rivers through which power is furnished for the whole industrial world.

Now, in present-day life, industries are massive. The capital required for an average industry is much greater than that commanded by one individual and too great for one individual to risk.

It is found best from every standpoint to draw in capital from many sides; in other words, to borrow from the public. The capital, therefore, that is usually required to conduct a typical modern industry is divided into a definite number of parcels or shares which are sold indiscriminately to individuals. The individuals who purchase these are among the savers.

Corporations replace the individual employer, hundreds of thousands and even millions in capi-

tal are invested in single enterprises, hundreds and even thousands of workmen replace the ten or the twenty, and the continent replaces the town as a field of operation, and the market is the world itself.

These corporations attract the savings of men and women generally; and the opportunity for investment is offered even to the modest saver of \$500. Dr. Kerby traces the distinctive features of private property as it is. He says in substance:

First: The saver who invests in industrial securities (which are taken as typical) becomes part owner in one or many enterprises without being complete owner in any. If a railroad has 40,000 stockholders, it has 40,000 partial owners. If 20,000 persons hold its bonds, it has 20,000 creditors. Whether a steel plant, a department store, or a bakery, in all cases we have stock companies or corporations, total capital divided into parcels, and scattered ownership. Individuals are part but never complete owners.

Second: It is of course impracticable for 40,000 or 20,000 or even 500 joint owners of any industry to attempt to manage it. They must manage through boards of directors, which will be selected from the stockholders. Ownership is thus separated from management.

Third: The joint owners, that is the stockholders, tend to become indifferent to management, and exercise practically no control. If the dividends be high, the directors may do as they please. In most cases the joint owners know nothing about the business.

Fourth: In corporations a tendency usually appears to accumulate 51 per cent. of the stock into the hands of one person, clique, or group, which will thereby secure practically absolute control. In an issue, 49 per cent., therefore, of the stockholders will have no more to say than the Emperor of China about the spirit in which their property shall be managed.

Fifth: The individual who is part owner of one of these enterprises tends to act and think as though he were the sole owner, and thus reacts on public opinion.

Sixth: Interests are now so highly differentiated that one depends on half a dozen others for its successful issue. Steel plants depend on railroads; railroads depend largely on crops and on industrial output for their freight. Our Civil War affected England because it interrupted the growth of cotton which kept the wheels moving over there.

Further, a shareholder may become a director in each of the corporations or companies in which he has investments. Thus one individual may hold directorships in a dozen or two dozen companies; and his interest in each will be exercised with due regard for the interests of the other corporations with which he is allied. Some years ago 100 individuals were reported to the United States Senate as holding over 2,000 directorates in American corporations.

Thus, says Dr. Kerby, we have a new feature of modern property organization.

The industrial processes together with the

mechanism of credit and finance have made a fundamental unity in property; and to-day it is property as one monstrous power, and not millions of small holdings, that is distinctively the subject of controversy and the basis of attacks made by organized labor and by Socialism. The timid owner of \$500 is no being to be afraid of. He offers no menace to our institutions. He has no temptations to undermine the institutions of government. It is the individual who through mastery of property becomes master of men and institutions who is held in mind in the denunciations of capital and capitalism. It would be well, observes Dr. Kerby, for us to keep this in mind in our defense of private property. We tend too much to argue in defense of the small owner, and to overlook the complicated mechanism by which private property is completely revolutionized.

A TRIO OF FRENCH CONTEMPORARY WRITERS

IN a country whose past is old and complex there are often many contradictions. In France, for instance, side by side with the modern Frenchman, Republican of to-day, stands the Frenchman of the aristocratic eighteenth century, traditionalist and monarchist. Next to him, on the other side, is the Imperialist, somewhat more transitional, but removed from the currents of the present also. Then there is the man of to-morrow, the revolutionist, ardent and idealistic, lured by the chimera of a reign of fraternal justice. In the different groups there is a variety of sentiment; and much of the finest and most philosophical French thought, and the most humanly generous, emanates from those socialists who, accepting to-day, labor to disengage a more liberated to-morrow. These characterizations and differentiations are made by Mme. Julia Gagey-McAdoo, in the *South Atlantic Quarterly*, in her critique on three noted French writers, MM. Emile Faguet, Georges Renard, and J. H. Rosny, the elder.

It is to the class of traditionalists that Mme. Gagey-McAdoo assigns M. Faguet, whom she terms "the greatest of living French critics." His quality is "the florescence of those influences that contributed to the growth of a monarchical and catholic France. In his eyes the Third Republic is distasteful; he deplores the democratization of his country; and he has no faith in the idea of democracy

itself as a governing principle." He gives expression to his view of democracy in his recent volume, *Le Culte de l'Incompétence* ("The Creed of Incompetence"), the initial volume of a series of critical studies in what concerns French civilization of to-day. In this work, to quote Mme. Gagey-McAdoo,

M. Faguet offers an analysis, that comes near being an arraignment, of democracy. Notwithstanding its ideal, altogether praiseworthy, to stand for virtue, in its actual workings democratic social or governmental "control" cultivates incompetence. Democracy is afraid of "incompetencies"; for democracy is the rule of the people, and the people fear those representatives who, by their superior talents, see beyond the popular passions and refuse to voice them. The people accordingly elect only those whom they consider incapable of outstripping them. Hence governmental incompetence, fluctuating laws, social instability. Like the legislator, the magistrate is condemned to incompetence. The magistracy is an administration, like the army—named, paid, advanced, and revoked by the government. Dependent on this government . . . the judiciary power is not independent. Its moral competence is sadly diminished; for the fear of reversal influences the justice it deals out . . . The refuge of "competence" in a democratic régime is the private professions . . . But in France, at least, the jealous eye of the people pursues this threat of an intellectual aristocracy, thus forming on the margin of its authority. The people demand a socialism which, by absorbing and administering all the forms of labor, will tend more and more to reduce the soaring of individual talent, and to equalize all mankind in one uniform block. M. Faguet suspects that socialism, established and

triumphant, will resolve itself into an oligarchy and a very merciless one. The remedy in M. Faguet's opinion, is the consent on the part of democracy to abandon the dream of absolute equality and the giving of a place to *competence*.

In complete contrast to the thought just discussed is that of Prof. Georges Renard of the Collège de France, "the man of to-morrow, of the unknown social horizons." He represents a philosophical and carefully ripened socialism. His career is picturesque and interesting. We read:

Banished from France for having had part in the Commune, that revolutionary movement of the Parisians in 1871 in the anticipated effort of the people toward democracy, his exile came to an end by a circumstance altogether delicious. From the shores of Lake Leman, he competed anonymously for a prize for poetry offered by the French Academy. The prize was accorded to him; and, when the name was made public, there was nothing for a government with the slightest sentiment of wit and "apropos" to do, but to welcome back to his country one who had thus honored her in the field of letters.

Mme. Gagey-McAdoo recommends to American readers M. Renard's "Social Discussions of Yesterday and To-morrow," of which the author himself says:

It is a contribution to the history of French thought in the last fifteen years. . . . Most of the problems which in this lapse of time have been put before unquiet France are far from being settled; they will for long be very real problems, and remain more than ever questions of to-day.

Professor Renard analyzes "the curious infiltration of the catholic spirit in the present

republican France, so different from the tendencies of the country which gave birth to the Revolution." The "Discussions" is a series of assaults against the clericalism of thought, essentially unsocial and unsocialistic. "Toward liberty by social organization" is M. Renard's watchword.

The third of the trio of French writers discussed in Mme. Gagey-McAdoo's article is M. J. H. Rosny, the elder, whose *La Vague Rouge* (The Red Wave), a "romance of revolutionary morals and manners, as presented in the French *syndicates*," is described as worthy of Zola himself. Our critic writes:

The proletariat of twentieth-century France takes breath and form before our eyes. The struggle of the "exploited" against the "exploiters," the multitude of workers, dimly conscious of their strength and attempting to organize collectively in an effort toward individual emancipation, the sorrow, the sordidness, the prejudices, and also the sense of comradeship and the moral beauty that ride high upon the onward crest of the red wave of united labor—all this M. Rosny brings palpitating intensely before our vision. The author has taken a series of types of Parisian working men and women, and sketched, with a consummate art, their portraits. He has given us the more exalted figure of the socialistic prophet, leader of the mob, achieving, as he thinks, the liberation of the laborer in the unchaining of trades-union strife.

Another of M. Rosny's books recommended by his critic to American readers is his *Marthe Baraquin*, a story of the condition of the unprotected working girl of Paris.

THE ALMANAC OF THE CELESTIALS

IN this section of the REVIEW for January last we had occasion to remark that China's claim to have the oldest newspaper is beyond dispute. In the matter of almanacs also it is somewhat doubtful if any other country can substantiate an earlier claim to priority. According to the Rev. Ernest Box, writing in the *National Review*, which bears the singular superscription "China, 4 February, 1911," the early astronomical and astrological ideas of the Chinese are traceable to a Chaldean source either from Babylonia itself or, as seems probable, through Persia. Among other ideas introduced into China at different points in its history are:

The connection of the five planets and the sun and moon, called the Seven Regulators, with a planetary week, with traces, still found in some Chinese almanacs, of a Sabbath—a Mih or Sun-

day—marked as inauspicious for doing work. The Ten Celestial Stems—representing the Father Heaven or male principle. The Twelve Earthly Branches—representing the Mother Earth—the female principle, and also standing for the Twelve Signs or Palaces in the Zodiac which are of uneven size. They are represented by symbolical animals. These animals are also used to name the years, so that if a person is asked his age he may reply that he belongs to the Rat or Monkey year and you have to make the necessary calculations by mental arithmetic, going through the series. For instance, if he replies Monkey and the present year is Rat, you count back eight points to Rat and then add the requisite number of twelves—guessing, say fifty-six or sixty-eight, if he is well on in years.

The Chinese year is lunar, but its commencement is regulated by the sun, the new year falling on the first new moon after the sun enters Aquarius. Practically the Chinese almanac is, under government, the monopoly of a Fukien firm, the Cantonese ones

being authorized by them, and others being unauthorized and the trade in them illicit. The official Almanac contains a number of charts. One of these shows when and where the good and evil Star Gods may be met. According to this chart, those seeking the God of Happiness on New Year's Day, 1910, had to go in an easterly or westerly direction in order to find him. To go north was most unpropitious. Another chart gives lucky and unlucky days for washing the hair. This is consulted chiefly by women—if men use it, they are chaffed as womanish.

If you wash your hair on the:

- 1st day—Your life will be shortened.
- 2d day—Very propitious results may be expected.
- 3d—Riches and honor will accrue.
- 4th—Your face will get a bad color.
- 5th—Your hair will fall off.
- 6th—Pimples will appear on your face.
- 9th—You will have a good sweetheart.
- 11th—Your eyes will brighten.
- 13th—An heir will be born.
- 28th—Domestic quarrels will be numerous.

Another chart shows lucky days for cutting out bridal clothes, or for a wife to make clothes for her husband. Certain days are unlucky in regard to clothes. Thus:

- 5th—Clothes will be stolen.
- 6th—Clothes will be suddenly torn.
- 7th—Their wearer will get a sickness.

9th—The clothes will be borrowed and not be returned.

Then various omens are interpreted, such as: Twitching of the eyes; singing of the ears; ears burning; flushing of the face; pot or kettle making a cracking noise on the fire; fire suddenly flaring up; dog biting; chattering of a magpie. There is a curious chart showing the unlucky days for visiting the sick. For example:

- 3d—Must enter by side entrance, not through main entrance.
- 13th—Can call to inquire, but must not enter.
- 17th—Must not sit on sick person's bed.
- 25th—You may visit, but be careful. Hell's detective is lying in wait.

The chart of a child's fortune shows no fewer than 26 "barriers" or crises in a child's life. Some of these are:

- 13th—Bath Tub Peril.
- 14th—God of Thunder Peril.
- 15th—Short Life Peril.
- 16th—Bridge-breaking Peril.

The Almanac closes with a daily calendar giving a list of things lucky or unlucky to be done, from starting on a journey to repairing your cooking-stove. Almanacs are used as charms to keep away evil spirits; it is a common sight in China to see a little child with a small almanac hanging from its neck.

THE GREATEST OF ALL THE BENGALLEES

IN chronicling the death of its founder, the late Babu Shishir Kumar Ghose, the *Hindu Spiritual Magazine* (Calcutta) calls him the greatest Bengalee who ever lived.

The article opens with the following summary of the deceased's claims to reverence:

Babu Shishir Kumar Ghose, the editor and founder of this journal, passed to spirit life on February, the 10th, at 1.35 P. M., at the age of seventy-one years and six months. Our grief is too deep and too fresh for utterance; but that is a personal matter. The loss which India, or, for the matter of that, the world at large, has sustained by the departure of this noble soul is simply incalculable. He was truly a great man. That he was the greatest of the Bengalees, of all time, admits of no question. He dedicated his life, when yet in his teens, to the service of suffering humanity; and for fifty years or more he played the rôle of a practical philanthropist, a fervent patriot, a religious teacher, a pious and *premic* (God-loving) Vaishnava, and an expounder of high spiritual truths.

While still quite a youth he resolved to go to America to investigate spiritualism, but was persuaded to remain at home and study

the subject in India. Later he became a well-known medium himself.

A TRIBUNE OF THE PEOPLE

The lad had not attained his twentieth year when he took a leading part in a great popular revolt against the oppression practised on the ryots by the indigo planters.

At the age of eighteen or nineteen Babu Shishir Kumar was fired with the ambition of helping the ryots who had been groaning under the terrible oppressions of the indigo planters. About five millions of them had risen against the latter and taken the vow of not sowing indigo again. And, as a matter of fact, they did not touch the poison again, though many of their leaders were thrown into prison, handcuffed, and shackled, and though their houses were razed to the ground by the planters, their wives and children roaming all over the country without food and shelter. The noble and almost godly spectacle of passive resistance which the down-trodden indigo ryots displayed in 1858, when the indigo planters were all-powerful in Bengal and practically ruled the Province, has no parallel in the world. Be it said

here to the glory of England that, as soon as her responsible ministers saw that five millions of ryots had combined to throw off the yoke of planter rule, they came to their rescue, and the indigo planters had to leave Bengal, bag and baggage, never to return here again! The ryots, in token of their gratitude to Babu Shishir Kumar, called him "Sinni Babu"—the God-favored lucky Babu, whom luck always followed.

HIS CAREER AS A JOURNALIST

In 1863 he established a fortnightly literary and scientific paper called *Amritā probahinee Patrika*, the first newspaper ever published in a Bengal village. It soon died, and it was not until the Babu lost his first wife that he founded a weekly paper, the *Amritā Bazar Patrika*. In this journal Shishir Kumar first propounded the doctrine of Indian nationalism: that the Indians had an entity as a nation; that they must assert their political rights; and that they must learn to grow under British rule. The Government of the time was not prepared for such a policy, and the result was a criminal defamation case against the journal, before it was five months old, by a European Deputy Magistrate. He escaped imprisonment, but he was ruined financially. He then transferred the paper to Calcutta, where it was so successful that the Vernacular Press Act was passed to stifle it:

Shishir Kumar saved his journal by coming out entirely in an English garb on the day following that on which the act was passed, as the measure did not affect papers conducted in the language of the rulers. This marvelous feat of journalism in the then backward condition of India created immense sensation as also admiration for Shishir Kumar through the length and breadth of the country.

AN ARDENT PATRIOT

Mr. W. S. Caine wrote the Babu's life as that of a man who "molded that new India

which has given birth to those patriotic aspirations which find their mouthpiece in the Indian National Congress":

It was he who was the father of mass meetings in this country. Through his powerful Calcutta organization, the Indian League, he first established political associations in the districts and asserted the rights of the middle classes, the real backbone of society in every country in the world. He was held in esteem by such distinguished Viceroys as Lord Ripon and Lord Dufferin. He was the right-hand man of the former when his lordship introduced his famous Local Self-Government measure in India. In a word, Shishir Kumar managed to make himself the most conspicuous political figure in Calcutta within five years of his arrival in the city, simply by his own merit, without the help of anybody except what he derived from the affections of his own brothers, whom he dearly loved.

HIS RELIGION

In his old age he devoted himself to the revivification of the religion of Vaishnavism and to the editing of the *Hindoo Spiritual Magazine*. In his last illness he talked much about spiritual matters with his friends. He told them, "Never did I realize the presence of God so vividly as I do now." On the eve of the day he breathed his last he talked and talked about the beauty and love of the Father of all nations, and was so powerfully moved that he fell into a state of ecstasy in which he had often been found of late. "Lord, this is my last work in this life," said Shishir Kumar, when he had finished correcting the final proofs of the last form of the volume which completes his "Life of Sri Gauranga" in Bengali only two hours before he passed on. His admirable monthly will in future be edited by his brother, Babu Motilal Ghose.

MORLEY ON BRITAIN'S PROBLEM IN INDIA

IN years to come the one name associated with British rule in India which will be remembered with gratitude above all others, alike by the natives of India and by the British themselves, will probably be that of Viscount Morley ("Honest John Morley"). The reform scheme introduced by him in 1909 opened an entirely new era in the history of India. Till then, the three hundred millions or more of East Indians had practically nothing to say in the administration of their laws or the spending of their revenues. Lord Morley's scheme changed all

that. Native members were placed in the majority in the provincial legislative councils, and the four largest of the provinces contributed each one native to the provincial executive council. Further, on the suggestion of Lord Morley, two native East Indians were taken in as members of the Secretary of State for India's Council, and, as noticed in the REVIEW of February last, a native Indian was appointed to the Law Membership of the Supreme Executive Council of India, the highest office yet thrown open to natives.

It goes without saying that any utterances

of Lord Morley's on Indian affairs have a weight peculiarly their own; and for this reason his article in the *Nineteenth Century and After* on "British Democracy and India" is the most important of recent contributions to the discussion of the difficult problem which the British have on their hands in the Far East.

Last year there appeared in the *London Times* some remarkable letters from the pen of Mr. Valentine Chirol, which have recently been republished in a volume entitled "Indian Unrest"; and it is this book which Lord Morley makes the basis of his article, remarking that "whatever the proportion, depth, and vitality of unrest in India, all will agree it is in spirit near enough to downright revolt to deserve examination." The new régime in India has removed from that country the stigma of being governed by an autocracy; but it has, at the same time, forced the question how the omnipotence of democracy and all its influences direct and indirect are likely to affect Indian rule. Self-government in India, says Lord Morley, means two things.

In one sense, it touches the relations of the indigenous population to European authority. . . . In another sense, it concerns the relations between both people and the organs of European authority on the one side, and the organs of home government on the other. . . . The popular claim under the first head is easy to understand: it finds itself on democratic principles borrowed from ourselves both at home and in the self-governing dominions. The second is different. It has not yet taken formidable shape, but it soon may. The ruling authority in India is sure to find itself fortified by pressure from the new councils in forcing Indian interests, and, what is more, the Indian view of such interests, against any tendency here in England to postpone them to home interests.

Mr. Chirol in his book "looks forward to the government of India assuming on many vital questions an attitude of increased independence toward the Imperial Government." The Indian newspapers are daily showing more of the practical handling, determination, and persistence that gives the press its influence elsewhere; and while in all times and places intelligence and self-reliance must be virtues, the problem will be, as Lord Morley remarks, "how to keep this intelligence and self-reliance in step with kindred quali-

fications in all the governing forces of so many kinds in England." A section of Mr. Chirol's book to which Lord Morley gives particular attention is that in which he insists "that the spirit of revolt is combined with caste ambitions." In his introduction to Mr. Chirol's volume, Sir Alfred Lyall says:

We have the strange spectacle in certain parts of India of a party capable of resorting to methods both reactionary and revolutionary, of men who offer prayers to ferocious divinities and denounce the Government by seditious journalism, preaching primitive superstition in the very modern form of leading articles. The mixture of religion with politics has always produced a highly explosive compound, especially in Asia.

On this, Lord Morley comments that "the Indian leaders proclaim that their commotion is in no sense due to Brahminical reaction, but is a normal movement forward."

What did we learn, they go on, from English literature? Patriotism, nationality, freedom—in a word, Emancipation. You suppose that ideas like these, everyday commonplaces with you, must be universals. They were not always so with you. With you they are not so many centuries old. With us they are brand new, they are drawn from your great books. . . . What you call unrest is not political demoralization . . . still less is it crafty religious reaction using the natural dislike of alien rule. Unrest has a spiritual inwardness that you never try to understand, and, whatever else it is, do not describe it as Neo-Hinduism or Brahminical reaction. . . . English thought is permeating India, and has brought about a silent change in Hindu ideas which all the persecution of Mohammedan conquerors failed to effect. You have shown yourselves less generous than the Moguls and Pathans. . . . Hindus who were willing to embrace Islam, and to fall in with the Moslem régime, became the equals of the dominant race. With you there has been no assimilation. You did not seek it; you repulsed it. The Indian mind is now set in a direction of its own. The reverence for authority is being discarded. In its place has come the duty of independent judgment in every sphere of thought: is not that your sense of duty, too?

Though this is the frame of mind with which the English have in important parts of India to deal, "those who know best and latest believe that, in spite of much to discourage, there is more to encourage." "With candor and patience," observes Lord Morley, "we are justified in good hope for the years immediately before us."



INVESTORS' PROTECTION

WITH OTHER NEWS OF BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Why People Buy Doubtful Stocks

SOPHISTICATED folks are apt to turn up their noses at the weakness of such investors as, having parted with money in exchange for pieces of paper, find they cannot change back again. But the wonder is not that so many make the mistake, but that so few do.

A recent experience of the staff of this department will illustrate. An impressive, well-attired personage called with a grievance. He felt that a letter answering a certain inquiry about a mining stock was unfair. He announced himself as no less a person than the vice-president of the very company criticized. He was assured that fairness is the primary aim of the department, and he was asked to repeat the statements complained of, furnishing phrases which he considered more just, *in writing*. This, however, the vice-president absolutely refused to do.

Any financial editor of experience knows that people who will not reduce matters of investment importance to writing are rarely heard of again in the same connection. The trouble is that most investors have not learned this—or have learned it at heavy cost. Now, the imposing vice-president whose call has been referred to would have had little trouble with the average citizen in carrying his point—that a personal explanation of the engineering methods and wealthy potentialities of his mine was in order. But any financial editor, having passed through scores of like experiences, knows how few essential facts come out in such an interview. It is a conflict of personalities—with victory pretty certain for the personality compelling enough to have worked its way up to the head of the arduous business of selling stock of no market value.

This particular promoter carried his insistence to a point of noise and abuse where it became necessary to use something other than mere persuasion to rid the office of his presence. It is obvious that the widow with the legacy, the minister, the school teacher or other salaried and saving worker is provided with neither the facilities for special research nor the other means necessary to recognize the futility of the situation and to take the summary action which such circumstances justify.

The old-fashioned book agent's or canvasser's methods, when applied to the selling of stocks, are extremely dangerous to every community visited. The story of the particular stock in question will emphasize this.

The Story of One Promoter

TEN or eleven years ago a man living in a little Western city found himself out of a job. He determined to try his fortunes in New York, and thither he journeyed with a lot of self-confidence and a reputation, gained through some newspaper experience, for writing good "copy." He rented desk room for \$8 a week and set up in the advertising business. He was successful—for he made money.

But he soon found that his clients were reaping relatively the greater rewards from his talent for getting people's attention. So he began to "promote" and to advertise himself among investors as the veritable well-spring of Prosperity.

Among the first of his really ambitious projects was a large building to be erected in the heart of the Metropolis and to be devoted to Exposition purposes. A company was duly organized, stock and "bonds" were sold, the promoter gained something in affluence—but that was all.

Next a patent medicine promotion was tried; then a patent health food. These fields of enterprise were soon abandoned, however, and in the brief space of five years thereafter, the promoter engaged successively in the fields of publishing, real estate, transportation and manufacturing. He is said by those who know him best to have built a part of the foundation of his present snug fortune out of the proceeds of the sale of stock in a "bubble" soap company.

Then there came the lure of gold—inevitably. What real promoter has not felt it! What could offer to the followers of him whose fortunes we are following a better opportunity to retrieve former losses? Accordingly a mining "claim" was purchased, a company was formed and the sale of stock began.

Some of the earliest records of the appeals to prospective investors, which are peculiarly

characteristic of the subject of this sketch, are found in connection with this enterprise. Here is one of them:

"The element of gamble enters into it only as to the amount of profit, not as to certainty. I want to impress upon you the fact that I am not guessing about this. I am telling you simply what I absolutely and positively know to be the facts—I believe that every dollar you put in now will bring you a dollar and a half a year income after the property is fully developed, and forty days after your last payment is made I expect to send your first dividend check." But here is what an authority has to say about it now:

"The company never paid a dividend and is a dead one."

A Mountain that Turned Out a Molehill

STILL the imagination of the advertising man had not reached its sublime height. It remained for him and his colleagues to "discover" something which, if their own words are to be taken for it, promised profits greater than the richest gold mine, more fabulous than the most prolific diamond mine. They purchased for a few thousands a small mountain out in Colorado. They did not pay real money for it, but gave in exchange some bonds, the interest on which they succeeded in having deferred for a year—or until they could get their stock-selling campaign under way. They capitalized their property eventually for \$10,000,000 and again appealed to investors by means of such "statistics" as the following (note *billions*, not millions merely):

Value of product	\$2,800,000,000
Cost of production	1,400,000,000
Net value of product	1,400,000,000
Actual assets behind each dollar of total capital	140
Annual profit	3,120,000
Annual surplus after paying 30% per annum in dividends	120,000
Possible profits per annum to be secured merely by increasing output	100%

"This sounds big," declared the promoter-in-chief, "but it is just as practicable as sawing wood. To one who has seen the property these figures are more reasonable than smaller ones."

Five years or more ago he said in a circular appeal for more subscriptions: "And here is a point I want to emphasize—that this is not a proposition where you have to wait and wait and wait for returns on your money. We are right up to the production point now

and there is no reason why the company should not be on a big dividend-earning basis well inside the present fiscal year."

Some money was spent in a plant and production was begun—it is still going on. But there have been no dividends because the company cannot make money. It is costing more to produce and to get the product to market than competition will permit to be charged for it. The company's officers won't tell you this—they never have issued a financial statement of any kind—but there is plenty of expert testimony on the point. Incidentally, it was only a short time ago that some one, in order to get satisfaction on a small note, had to attach part of those "billions" of assets.

The company continues to sell more stock—the very stock that was fathered by the vice-president who came to this office with a grievance. And this is in part the record of that man's boss.

James J. Hill on "Cheap Money"

THE Grand Old Man of the Northwest, builder of railroads, creator of industries, fosterer of agriculture and author of epigrams sparkling with timely truths—who does not recall his vigorous swinging of "red lights" before the 1907 panic came along or his protest against "the cost of high living"?—this foremost American has again given utterance to a paradox which the manufacturer, the merchant and the landowner must have relished.

The newspapers were daily chronicling the accumulation of money in New York, and the difficulty of lending it even at absurdly low rates because there were no borrowers. This sounded quite unreal to the Illinois manufacturer or the Nebraska jobber or the Southern cotton grower who had tried to find some of this overflow of funds.

Mr. Hill hit the nail squarely on the head when he said, in effect: "Money is very cheap in Wall Street—until you try to borrow it. It is cheap only to some; you or I could not get any of it."

Many readers of this magazine have been perplexed by the extraordinary difference between the rates quoted for money in New York and those named by their local banks. Some have harbored a grievance against their banker; they have had a suspicion that he wanted to charge them usurious rates for accommodation.

"If he hasn't the money on hand, why doesn't he get plenty from New York, where

it costs only half what I'm willing to pay?" is the tenor of certain complaints.

Yet the out-of-town banker is usually not to blame. If James J. Hill, master of properties worth hundreds of millions, friend and associate of financiers, cannot borrow this cheap money, how can the ordinary Western or Southern banker—with a capital and surplus of perhaps only a hundred thousand dollars—hope to partake of the monetary feast? For him there may be—probably is—a monetary famine.

Money in Wall Street is to-day cheap—but only to some.

Misleading Money Quotations

PRICES for the use of money, as quoted regularly in the financial columns of the newspapers, mislead most readers. It is possible to explain, in the simplest of terms, just what the money prices mean and what they do not mean.

Here is the range of quotations at the opening of the second half of March: "Call money opened at $2\frac{3}{8}\%$, the maximum was $2\frac{1}{2}\%$, the minimum 2% and the ruling rate $2\frac{1}{4}\%$. Rates for time money are: $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ to $2\frac{3}{4}\%$ for 60 days, $2\frac{3}{4}\%$ for 90 days, 3% for four months, $3\frac{1}{4}\%$ for five and six months and 4% for over the year. Commercial paper: $3\frac{3}{4}\%$ to $4\frac{1}{4}\%$ for prime four to six months' single-name bills and 60 to 90 days' endorsed bills receivable."

These quotations are absolutely honest. Yet they have nothing to do with the case of nine people out of ten. The average business man who tried to get facilities for sixty days at $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ per cent. or for a year at 4 per cent.—"because the article said so"—would be laughed at. These low charges are available only for the elect. Who are they?

Wall Street's money rates are for Wall Street only. That, in a nutshell, gives the whole situation in its true light. The phrase "call money," though used in other cities, such as Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, Montreal and Toronto, fits the conditions in the Metropolis only. It means that the lender can call for his money without any notice at any time after the day the loan is made; and can demand immediate payment. "Day to day" loans these are often termed.

In New York, such loans are constantly being called in the ordinary course of business, but in these other centers the borrower expects and usually receives adequate notice from the lender before the return of the money is insisted upon. Knowing that he can se-

cure his funds at any instant, the banker likes to keep a percentage of his resources "on call." The Canadian banks carry many, many millions in New York under this arrangement.

The borrower of both call and time money, however, must produce the very finest of collateral to safeguard the lender against all possible loss. For instance, it is useless for him to offer only the securities of our industrial corporations paying handsome dividends; if he wants money on such securities, special terms have to be arranged for an "all-industrial loan." No, the borrower must present thoroughly sound bonds or gilt-edged railroad stocks. Their market value has to be a very comfortable percentage above the sum wanted, and should the stock market decline severely, extra collateral is demanded. If the borrower cannot live up to the most rigid of stipulations, or if he cannot repay promptly, then all his securities can be sold and the proceeds retained in sufficient amount to satisfy the loan.

Bankers are often quite fastidious as to whom they will lend their money. This season there have been many complaints on this score from individuals. Business has been done mostly with trustworthy Stock Exchange firms situated in the heart of the financial district and therefore within easy reach should untoward developments arise.

Commercial paper, though quoted at 4 per cent., is not, as a rule, negotiable at so low a figure except in the case of very powerful drawers. Concerns enjoying the very finest credit can have their bills accepted on these terms, but here again the average merchant must not expect to participate. He should consider himself fortunate if he can secure facilities for six months at $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ to 5 per cent. Indeed, unless he is favorably known in financial circles, he will encounter difficulty in having his bills discounted at any reasonable figure.

New York bankers, in short, demand high insurance rates from those outside the financial zone and often refuse to do business save with their own friends.

Money is cheap—to some.

"From Shirt-Sleeves to Shirt-Sleeves"

"FROM shirt-sleeves to shirt-sleeves in three generations" has been applied to the brief cycle of fortunes and their inheritors. Like most popular sayings, it contains an element of truth, but must not be interpreted too

literally. It has been brought to the public mind recently by events in the railroad world.

When Edward H. Harriman was in his prime, conquering one financier after another and gaining a foothold in property after property, it was beginning to look as if he would overthrow the power bequeathed by the famous Commodore Vanderbilt. But Mr. Harriman's insatiable ambition propelled him forward faster than his frail physique could bear, and he died in the thick of his financial warfare. Since then the Vanderbilt family has rehabilitated its position in the railroad world and has formed a valuable alliance with Kuhn, Loeb & Co., the bankers who worked with Mr. Harriman in the upbuilding of the Union Pacific and in acquiring other railroads.

The properties left by Jay Gould have fared less fortunately. The second generation have not proved conspicuously successful in earning dividends for the stocks of companies controlled by them. One by one dividend payments were stopped. At the opening of this year, only one so-called Gould railroad was making disbursements to stockholders—and this only a 4 per cent. preferred payment. The climax came some weeks ago when George J. Gould, after a series of conferences with representatives of Kuhn, Loeb & Co. and the Rockefellers, announced that he would relinquish the presidency of the Missouri Pacific Railroad. Other members of the Gould family later "showed fight" and they actually succeeded in changing somewhat the personnel of the Board of Directors as originally drawn up. But there can be no doubt that the unchallenged reign of the Gould family has passed.

The great stretch of country served by the Missouri Pacific, the Denver & Rio Grande, the Western Pacific, Texas & Pacific and allied roads will reap lasting benefits from the change of control. The Gould credit had suffered so much that it was becoming well-nigh impossible to raise additional amounts of capital for sorely needed improvements, whereas the Rockefeller-Kuhn-Loeb combination will see to it that scores of millions are forthcoming to develop facilities. Every farmer, every factory owner, every merchant along the Gould lines can now look forward to an era of progress. What the Canadian Pacific has done for Canada, the Hill roads for the Northwest and the Harriman system for the country traversed by it, the regenerated Gould network of lines will do for the States it covers.

Foreign Trade Scales Tip in Our Favor

THE scales employed to weigh our trade with other nations began to move against us at this time last year, much to the alarm of our financiers. Throughout the next six months the returns continued highly unsatisfactory. But the United States has since demonstrated its infinite capacity for recuperation, for surviving and surmounting setbacks, for forging ahead with renewed energy and determination.

At the end of August we actually owed foreign countries a small balance on our trading for 1910. At the end of February they owed us, for the eight months of the current fiscal year, no less than \$418,145,155.

Some records have meanwhile been broken. The February exports, valued at \$175,996,467, have never been equaled for that month of the year. From September to December last, we shipped merchandise to the aggregate of \$811,505,789, a figure without parallel for any other four months in our history. Notwithstanding the bad start this fiscal year—the Government's year, of course, runs from July 1 to June 30—the excess of exports over imports is the largest, with only three exceptions, we have ever enjoyed. The February balance reached the imposing total of \$54,230,183, a showing surpassed but once (in 1908) since the United States joined the family of nations. A year ago we sold during the month \$5,559,950 less than we bought—a violent movement of the scales, it will thus be realized.

What we have done once, we may do again. As a people, we had become intoxicated with prosperity and had indulged, as our foreign trade statistics reflect, in unwonted extravagance, buying more of Europe's luxuries than we could rightly afford and selling less than we ought. But necessity, the most effective of taskmasters, has caused us to sober down, to return in earnest to work, to increase our production, to spend less and to save more wherever this has been possible in face of the high cost of living.

The result has been salutary in more ways than one. Not only has our foreign trade balance moved drastically in our favor, but the increased efficiency of labor, the lessened consumption of goods and the economy practised on all sides has brought down prices in a remarkable degree, so that to-day public discontent is less bitter than it was a year ago and the country can look forward to a fresh era of prosperity.

King Cotton to the Rescue

KING COTTON came nobly to the rescue of our foreign trade—more nobly, in fact, than ever before.

During the six months ended February—the cotton year begins on September 1—the United States exported the staple to the value of \$473,288,323, a sum not merely unprecedented for the half year, but actually greater than the previous best total for an entire twelve months. That statement is worth re-reading. It at once illumines our international trade position and affords the greatest possible encouragement for expecting big things from the South, that vast territory so rich in potentialities, so vibrant with an energy quickened by industrial and railroad progress and destined to rival in due course the great textile manufacturing countries of the Old World.

Half a billion dollars from foreign buyers of our cotton! That will be the record achieved at the opening of April. It is both inspiring and staggering.

In twenty years we have received for exported cotton the stupendous sum of \$6,264,-928,955.

The following table gives the quantity, value and price per pound of cotton (exclusive of the Sea-Island product) exported from the United States in each cotton year since 1902:

	Bales	Value Dollars	Price Per Pound Cents
1892	5,893,868	256,998,351	8.7
1893	4,473,206	189,016,511	8.5
1894	5,300,458	205,350,022	7.8
1895	6,850,327	197,973,698	5.7
1896	4,701,791	191,164,549	8.1
1897	6,036,713	223,776,966	7.4
1898	7,648,699	229,951,989	5.9
1899	7,420,239	209,891,357	5.5
1900	6,009,757	242,678,333	7.9
1901	6,617,464	315,879,294	9.3
1902	6,709,276	283,039,261	8.3
1903	6,716,323	306,398,639	8.9
1904	6,080,452	372,501,491	12.0
1905	8,732,661	399,898,721	8.9
1906	6,722,440	381,918,542	11.0
1907	8,483,048	470,006,654	10.7
1908	7,540,063	440,037,612	11.4
1909	8,547,883	417,678,436	9.4
1910	6,309,763	457,480,206	14.1
1911	6,330,261	473,288,323	14.5

Total	133,124,692	6,264,928,955	
Average	6,656,235	313,246,448	9.2

America's Present Power Over Europe's Gold

GREAT is the power of the purse. The Rothschilds have been described as the arbiters of Europe's peace and wars. It will interest a great many people to know that the United States to-day exercises an altogether unusual influence in the financial centers of Europe and that, should occasion arise, our bankers could instantly draw millions of gold across the Atlantic.

In our merchandise operations alone for the last eight months, Europe has become indebted to us to the amount of nearly \$420,-000,000. Almost half as much more has been credited to us through the sale of new bonds, short-term notes and stocks to Europeans by our international bankers. In addition, New York financial institutions, finding they could not lend their excessive reserves of cash at home at profitable rates, sent upwards of \$50,000,000 abroad, mostly to London and Berlin.

This is an extraordinary state of affairs. Money in new countries like America is nearly always worth more than in such creditor nations as Great Britain, France and Germany, yet during recent months rates abroad have been higher than at home. Hence the operations described.

The securities bought have been duly paid for at the other side, but the money was deposited there. It would have been poor banking business to bring over funds to New York and lend them at 2½ per cent. from day to day when more attractive rates were obtainable in Europe. Sooner or later, however, the corporations that issued the securities will want their money. What will happen when it has to be sent hither? Already the foreign exchanges have neared the gold-import level, and prominent bankers say that as soon as it is worth while to take gold, the precious metal will be forthcoming.

This is a comfortable position. It has much to do with the cheerfulness of financiers this winter as compared with a few months ago, when we were importing more merchandise than we were exporting and when European investors would not buy our securities. A new or debtor nation cannot long neglect to take action when creditor countries show reluctance to accept "promises to pay."

ARNOLD BENNETT: A NEW MASTER IN ENGLISH FICTION

BY G. W. HARRIS

DISCRIMINATING readers in "these States," alert for the really significant things amid the welter of current-day fiction which hourly engulfs the unwary, could a poll of such alert readers be taken, undoubtedly would vote "The Old Wives' Tale" the most remarkable English novel (from an unknown hand) of the year 1909; and again that "Clayhanger" is the most imposing piece of fiction by a British author among all such published in America in 1910. Each of these tales is almost inordinately long for these days (though neither of them attains to quite two-thirds of the gigantic length of the masterworks of Thackeray and Dickens), but each is a *big* novel—the two terms are not synonymous, gentle reader.

These two novels by Mr. Arnold Bennett are significant of several things besides the fact that a new master in English fiction has arrived. In themselves they typify the very newest of the new tendencies in the slow but ceaseless development of the English novel into a document of prime importance concerning human nature. They exemplify the return to favor of the life-long novel—the supplanting from its dominion of popularity (at least for the immediate present) of the episodic, short-story type, whatever its actual length, the crisp dramatic sketch dealing with a few characters in a single situation, by the necessarily longer, more detailed, slower, more leisurely narrative which attempts to depict life in all its manifold phases, attempts to tell "the whole truth." In the method chosen by their author for his endeavor to make his readers "see life clearly and see it whole" they are significant of the triumphant rise of Realism out of "the slough of Zolaism" toward light and air. And they again exemplify the return to another of the older ideas dominating the best fiction, pretty much lost sight of in recent years, namely, that much detailed account of his environment is necessary to a faithful and convincing portrayal of the novel's protagonist. Indeed, it may be said that these novels exemplify the working out of a new theory in fiction: that in these democratic (and sociological) times the life of a whole community, rather than the life of a single individual, is the novelist's best theme.

Those whose appreciation of either one of these decidedly noteworthy novels pricked on curiosity concerning their author to consult "Who's Who" for information about him learned that Mr. Arnold Bennett was no novice in authorship. He had published, in England, many books before he wrote "The Old Wives' Tale"—novels, fantasias, short stories, essays, plays. Yet, so far as I am aware, none of the literary magazines, American or English, has ever printed an article about him; and the afore-named fat authority on contemporary biography contains little more than an incomplete list of his publications. Before he gained international recognition by his big, whole-life novels, he wrote quantities of the episodic short

story which originated in journalism, and before he began to write fiction he was a reporter for an English provincial newspaper. He says that the school of journalism gave him his literary training, teaching him enthusiasm and passionate curiosity as to what is happening in the world about him—the first requisite, he believes, for any writer. The story of the development of this reporter into one of the leading novelists of his time should provide interesting matter.

Enoch Arnold Bennett was born in the pottery district of North Staffordshire, the region which, for the purposes of his fiction, he has named "The Five Towns," on May 27, 1867. He received his schooling at Newcastle Middle School (Edwin Clayhanger's "historic Middle School of Old-castle").

After a brief experience as a newspaper reporter he went to London and entered a lawyer's office, devoting his leisure time to writing free-lance articles and studying French fiction. "During all this time," he says, "I was absorbing French fiction incessantly; in French fiction I include the work of Tourgenév, because I read him always in French translations. Tourgenév, the brothers DeGoncourt and DeMaupassant were my gods. I accepted their canons and they filled me with a general scorn of English fiction which I have never quite lost." It was while under these formative foreign influences, to which later was added that of Flaubert, that Mr. Bennett wrote his first novel. The law had no attractions for him, and when, after two or three years of legal drudgery and freelance writing, a position was offered him as assistant editor of a London women's paper called *Woman*, he accepted it with alacrity. That was in 1893. "I learnt a good deal about frocks," he says, "household management and the secret nature of women—especially the secret nature of women." So, by his own confession, it was by editing a women's paper that Arnold Bennett trained himself for the authorship of "The Old Wives' Tale." He succeeded to the editorship in December, 1896. In 1900 he resigned to devote himself exclusively to literature.

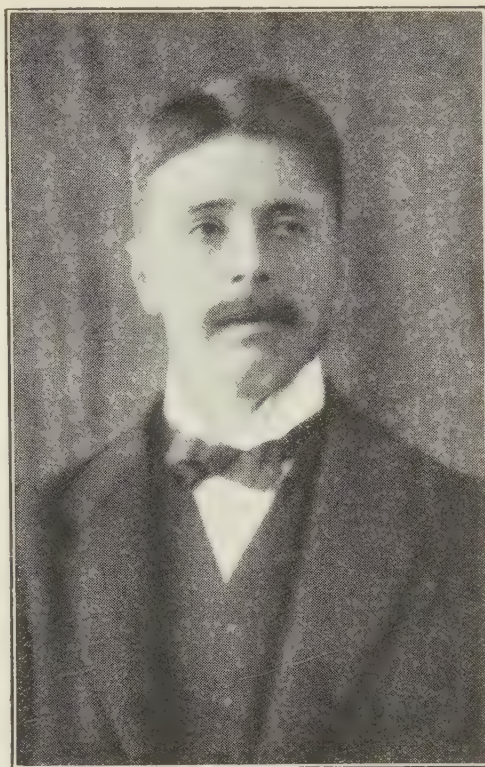
Meanwhile, his first published novel, "A Man from the North," had appeared in 1898, and "Polite Farces" a book of plays, in 1899. In 1901 he published "Fame and Fiction," a volume of essays. "The Grand Babylon Hotel," a fantasia, and the novel "Anna of the Five Towns" followed in 1902; "The Truth about an Author" and "Leonora" in 1903; "A Great Man" in 1904; "Sacred and Profane Love" and a collection of "Tales of the Five Towns" in 1905. His next novel, "Whom God Hath Joined" (1906), more than the others revealed the atmosphere he had breathed as a law clerk. "The Grim Smile of the Five Towns," another volume of short stories, appeared in 1907. In 1908 came "Cupid and Common Sense," a play, and "Buried Alive" (published in America in 1910), an entertaining satirical extravaganza ex-

tracted from the old device of the master changing places with his servant: upon the death of his valet, Priam Farll, the greatest of modern painters, but a man too shy to trouble to correct the misunderstanding, steps forth into London, a discharged middle-aged valet. Priam Farll is dead. Unknown in England save as a signature on sundry much-talked-of masterpieces, buried alive, he enjoys the experience of reading his own obituary in the newspapers; but he is somewhat perturbed by attending his own funeral in Westminster Abbey and learning that his large fortune is to be applied to the foundation of a gallery of great masters. Then it is that Mrs. Alice Chalice comes with healing balm to his rescue.

"The Human Machine" and "How to Live on Twenty-four Hours a Day," two stimulating little homilies on the supreme importance of mental concentration, and "The Old Wives' Tale," also issued from the press in England in 1908, but none of them reached these shores until many months later. In 1909 Mr. Bennett published "What the Public Wants," a witty play satirizing his old profession of journalism, and "The Glimpse: an Adventure of the Soul," a brilliant *tour de force*, presenting the case of a Londoner devoted to art and literature who is stricken with apoplexy and left for dead, when in reality he is conscious but unable to move. In that state he gets a glimpse of the world to come, which the author amplifies with skill and imagination. Besides "Clayhanger," 1910 witnessed the publication of "Helen with the High Hand," a capital piece of fun which has been characterized not inaptly as a humorously charming pendant to his gloomy large-scale depictions of the Five Towns, and "The Deeds of Denry the Audacious," another Five Towns book in the lighter vein. Still other books by Mr. Bennett, of which the dates of publication are not available at this writing, are "The Gates of Wrath," "Teresa of Watling Street," "The Loot of Cities," "Hugo," "The Ghost," and "The City of Pleasure," classed by their author as fantasias; and in *belles lettres* "Journalism for Women," "How to Become an Author," "Literary Taste," and "The Reasonable Life." Also, several years ago, he collaborated with Mr. Eden Phillpotts in the writing of two romances entitled respectively "The Sinews of War" and "The Statue."

I am not at all sure that this enumeration completes the full tale of his publications; for, with the possible exception of Mr. H. G. Wells, probably no English novelist of the last decade has been so prolific. Those who would get at the secret of Mr. Bennett's ability to turn out such an astonishing amount of work will find some hint of it in "The Human Machine." This is no surreptitious jest; Mr. Bennett's stories are never "machine-made."

But large and rapid productivity does impose its penalties, and readers whose supreme delight is in distinction of style and a fastidious choice of words should be forewarned that such graces of artistry are hardly to be met with even in the best of this man's books. His style is a journalistic style, diffuse, loosely knit, careless of those niceties of precision which are necessary to convey delicate shades of meaning and of those restraints—"the removal of surplusage"—which are requisite to the fashioning of fine prose. He is too easily satisfied with the first word that will serve his purpose. He has never ceased to be a reporter. Having said which, one must hasten to add that, a vital interest in the very fact of existence being



MR. ENOCH ARNOLD BENNETT

the source of his enthusiasm, he succeeds somehow in interesting his readers in even the apparently unimportant, apparently trivial facts of life, side-lights, glints and squints, which he reports. Whatever his faults of style, in his later novels at least he is master of all his material. "The Old Wives' Tale" and "Clayhanger" are character studies in four dimensions; besides the possession of corporeal being, the characters these books acquaint us with are human souls which live and grow as we read about them.

The influence of Mr. Bennett's study of French fiction is shown in other things. He has learned "the lesson of Balzac" and found romance in ordinary life. And just as many of the masterpieces of French fiction take women for their chief characters, half a dozen of Mr. Bennett's novels are devoted directly to women and women's problems. In these tales of women he has managed to combine British self-poise and morality with feminine exactitude for detail and with touches of French vivacity. The best of them, and artistically the best thing he has produced thus far, "The Old Wives' Tale," is a brace of the separate histories of two sisters born and bred in the Five Towns. In the book's early chapters they are pictured in the light-hearted gaiety of their late teens, and the tale does not end till both have grown to sad old age and finally passed to their reward. The life depicted is commonplace, prosaic, somber, even the experiences of one of the sisters throughout the Paris Commune. It is described minutely, vividly, pitilessly. There is no caricature, but there is biting satire on almost every page. Yet it is all deeply interesting by

reason of the author's unusual, almost uncanny, power of making us see things through the eyes of his characters.

"Clayhanger" is, artistically, only a huge fragment—the first part of a trilogy having for its central theme the breaking down of the old spirit by the new in the central provinces of England. The whole work, the other two sections of which are not yet written, is to give the history of Edwin Clayhanger's life: first, as it looks to himself; second, as it looks to the woman who is to become his wife; and third, as it looks to them both after their marriage. This first part is, therefore, not a complete novel at all, despite its 698 pages (it is

too long; the exercise of a rigorous compression would have improved it greatly). It brings us almost within sound of marriage bells, but it is most unsatisfactory in what it does not tell us about the young woman Edwin is to wed. The character of Hilda Lessways remains throughout too shadowy and indefinite. But the book is, nevertheless, an amazing and an absorbing transcript from a life of intense inner drama in a setting of outward monotony. Barring its artistic incompleteness, it is a book of surpassing sincerity, truthfulness and insight. Its promise is big for the monumental greatness of the trilogy when that shall be finished.

THE NEW BOOKS

BIOGRAPHY

PARTICULARLY interesting and timely just now is Mr. James Creelman's graphic study of "Diaz, Master of Mexico."¹ Mr. Creelman says in his preface that he has endeavored to explain, not to attack or defend "the most interesting man of the most mistaken and misrepresented country of the world." As he points out truly, the thrilling, dramatic life story of Porfirio Diaz, while told many times, has always been recounted detached from Mexican history with a result that has often been confusing and generally misleading. The student of Mexican history and conditions should always remember how severe a strain was put upon the principles of Democratic government when the Mexican statesmen of 1824 made their "raw attempt to apply the perfected institutions of Anglo-Saxon civilization to the descendants of the dusky races which inhabited Mexico before the discovery of America by Columbus." Diaz, "summoned to power from youth of poverty and obscurity by the necessities of his divided and demoralized country, is as truly a creation of the weakness of his people as the peaceful and progressive Mexican of to-day is largely the product of his strength and common sense." In these times of radical agitation, says Mr. Creelman, "when sentimental democracy screams its epigrams against the hard, rough, slow work that confronts organized society in all countries, there is much to be learned in the life of this greatest Latin-American leader, from his brilliant, fighting youth to his white old age, in which he sits acknowledged master of progress and comparative plenty." Mr. Creelman had the privilege of many conversations directly with President Diaz, and in the preparation of his book had access to the President's private memoirs and the government archives. The volume is appropriately illustrated. It is vividly written. Particularly illuminating and instructive is the account of the French intervention in 1867, and the defeat and execution of Maximilian, in which Diaz bore so prominent and creditable a part.

The concluding volume of "The Works of James Buchanan,"² compiled and edited by Prof. John Bassett Moore, contains President Buchanan's own defense of his administration on the eve of the Rebellion (written in 1865), an autobi-

ographical sketch of his early life, and a biography by James Buchanan Henry. All these materials are of great value in any study of the war period.

An extended account of the assassination of President Lincoln³ detailing the flight, pursuit, capture and punishment of the conspirators, with many illustrations, has been written by Osborn H. Oldroyd. This writer, while adding nothing to what is already known of the tragedy of April, 1861, has made a useful compilation fortified by documentary evidence.

BOOKS CONCERNING RELIGIOUS FAITHS

In "Modern Thought and Traditional Faith,"⁴ Dr. George Preston Mains has endeavored, so he tells us in his preface, to show that biblical scholars and critics have, for some time, realized that, despite traditions, "nothing in the last resort is of value, and nothing will finally stand save the truth." The Bible, in its passage to us from the early middle ages, "has had foisted upon it many traditional errors and false interpretations. It has been the mission of criticism to free the Bible from these obscuring errors." And the Church "ought to welcome and to encourage a reverent, yet a free, untrammelled, critical investigation in all fields of religious truth."

Dr. Paul Carus, editor of the *Open Court*, considers, in a newly issued volume, "Truth on Trial,"⁵ Beginning with a critique of pragmatism and an appreciation of the late Professor William James, its leader, Dr. Carus proceeds to consider what he calls the philosophy of the personal equation, and the general nature of truth in its relation to life and intellectual progress. Dr. Carus's writings are for the elect to whom philosophy and science are as an open book.

An estimate of Indian character which is particularly valuable from the fact that it is made by an Indian himself, is Dr. Charles Alexander Eastman's "Soul of the Indian."⁶ Not being influenced by the prejudices and legends which prevail in the mind of most white men concerning the Indian, Dr. Eastman is able to give us a clear idea of what the red man really thinks and feels. He considers the Indian's religion, his moral code,

¹ *Assassination of Abraham Lincoln*. By Osborn H. Oldroyd. O. H. Oldroyd, Washington. 305 pp., ill.

² *Modern Thought and Traditional Faith*. By George P. Mains. Eaton & Mains. 279 pp. \$1.50.

³ *Truth on Trial*. By Paul Carus. Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago. 138 pp. \$1.

⁴ *The Soul of the Indian*. By Charles Alexander Eastman. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 170 pp. \$1.

¹ *Diaz, Master of Mexico*. By James Creelman. Appleton's. 442 pp. \$2.

² *The Works of James Buchanan*. By John Bassett Moore. Lippincott. 498 pp. \$5.

and his general social and family relations. So much has been written, says Dr. Eastman, "by strangers, of our ancient faith and worship that treats it chiefly as a matter of curiosity. I should like to emphasize its universal quality."

Mr. James M. Pryse's "The Apocalypse Unsealed"¹ is an esoteric interpretation of "The Revelation of St. John," with an entirely new translation of the text. It endeavors to reconcile the teachings of the New Testaments and the Buddhistic and Brahmanical scripture unto a common esoteric basis, and to teach the psychic and spiritual unfoldment of man on the hypothesis that St. John's book of mystery is an account of

Readers of the REVIEW of REVIEWS will remember our appreciative reference, some months ago, to Mr. Harold Begbie's remarkable volume on religious conversion which was entitled "Twice-Born Men." Mr. Begbie has brought out another book on the same subject with, as far as we can detect, the same power and feeling. He has called it "Souls in Action—Studies of Christianity Militant."² "Twice-Born Men" recorded the testimony of men of the humbler classes, some of them of the very dregs of society; "Souls in Action," on the other hand, deals with persons of the higher strata of society. The book has a real sociological value.

WESTERN ADVENTURES RETOLD

"The Adventures of James C. Adams, Mountaineer and Grizzly Bear Hunter of California"³ by Theodore H. Hittell, constitutes, to all intents and purposes, a new book, from the viewpoint of the American reading public of to-day. Yet the volume is almost an exact reproduction, so far as type, illustration and binding are concerned, of the work as published at Boston and San Francisco in 1860, just before the breaking out of the Civil War. Business troubles at that time caused publication to be discontinued and the book went out of print. After a life of stirring adventure in the West, Adams became an animal showman, and it was while he was giving an exhibition of his animals in San Francisco that Mr. Hittell made his acquaintance and procured from him an account of his experiences. Later he formed an alliance with P. T. Barnum, and exhibited his animals in New York City.

SOCIOLOGY: ECONOMICS

A new book by Ellen Key is a literary and social event of world interest. This Swedish authoress is gradually taking a hold upon the reading public of the United States. All over Europe, particularly in her own native Sweden, her name holds an honored place as a representative of progressive thought. Her books, "The Century of the Child" and "The Education of the Child," have already been noticed in these pages. The present volume: "Love and Marriage,"⁴ translated from the Swedish by Arthur G. Chater, is a discussion, in frank, wholesome, stimulating language, of the complex subject of the relation of the sexes, of the obligation of the State in the control of these relations, and of the organization of the family as the foundation of society. Ellen Key's main theme is that the ignoring of an evil does not dispose of it, and "that, so far from preserving society from its influence, the burying of an evil merely tends to increase its corrupting and demoralizing results." There is an appreciative introduction to this volume by Havelock Ellis.

We have had occasion more than once to refer to the findings of the Pittsburg Survey, as published in six volumes under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation. Probably there never before has appeared in print a more dramatic story, or one of greater social and economic significance, than that of the workers in the industries that have Pittsburg for their center. These volumes are not a dry, statistical record, but an in-



ADAMS AND "BEN FRANKLIN"

(From "The Adventures of James Capen Adams")

the journey of the soul to the higher life upon celestial planes. Now that the world is growing in tolerance, and when it shows itself among religionists, in the sects and churches, in the coming together of science and religion, we owe to every effort to unfold the mystery of life intelligent and respectful consideration. It remains difficult to judge where exact knowledge ends and intuitive speculation steps in with regard to Mr. Pryse's thesis, but it is of absorbing interest and scholarly of conception. It repudiates the conception of an anthropomorphic God; it explains the nature of "Christos" and "the old Serpent, who is the Devil and Satan"; and to the mind that permits itself to rise beyond the processes of mere intellection, purports to reveal the "Word that was God." There is an artistic colored frontispiece and numerous zodiacal tables and charts accompanying the lucid text.

¹ The Apocalypse Unsealed. By James M. Pryse. New York: John M. Pryse. 222 pp., ill. \$2.

² Souls in Action. By Harold Begbie. George H. Doran Co. 310 pp. \$1.25.

³ The Adventures of James C. Adams, Mountaineer and Grizzly Bear Hunter of California. By Theodore H. Hittell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 373 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁴ Love and Marriage. By Ellen Key. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 399 pp. \$1.75.

tensely vivid presentation of living facts. Especially is this true of the story of "The Steel Workers"¹ by John A. Fitch. The account that this writer gives of the basic industry of steel is of far more than local significance, for whatever concerns so important an industry certainly concerns the whole people of the United States. A good deal has been written, at one time and another, about the steel industry from various points of view, but in this book Mr. Fitch tries to tell what the industry means to the men who are employed in it, and who, in years past, have seldom had a spokesman.

The life of the mill workers in the Pittsburgh steel district is still further interpreted in Miss Margaret F. Byington's study of "Homestead: the Households of a Mill Town."² While Mr. Fitch's volume deals with wages and general labor conditions in the steel industry, Miss Byington analyzes the various factors affecting the welfare of the wage-earning population—housing, sanitation, and public education. In gathering material for this study Miss Byington investigated ninety households, using as a basis for comparison her acquaintance with tenement conditions in New York and Boston.

If any topic of the day stands in need of clear and comprehensive treatment it is the income tax. There has heretofore been no adequate discussion of this subject, at least in the English language, for many years. The available literature on the subject has been made up of monographs on special aspects of the income tax, and comparatively few of these were of recent date. The lack has now been supplied as fully as it is likely to be in any single volume by Professor Edwin R. A. Seligman's book, entitled "The Income Tax: A Study of the History, Theory and Practice of Income Taxation at Home and Abroad."³ Professor Seligman began, seventeen years ago, to make researches into the history of taxation in the American colonies and States with reference to the income tax. The adverse Supreme Court decisions of 1895 caused temporary cessation of interest in the subject, but with the renewed agitation which eventuated in the submission of the sixteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, Professor Seligman returned to his earlier researches, completed them, and brought them up to date. It is Professor Seligman's belief that we shall, before long, have a Federal income tax in the United States, and he has written his book with a view to aiding the legislator in constructing a workable scheme. Those readers who do not feel that they can give the time required for a study of the whole seven hundred pages of Professor Seligman's rather elaborate treatise may find the main outlines of the problem very clearly stated in the introduction and conclusion of the volume.

NEW BOOKS ABOUT WAR AND PEACE

The literature of war and its causes, from the standpoint of the peace lover who believes that human strife is illogical and unnecessary, is increasing in volume with every month. We have noticed, in these pages, Mr. Norman Angell's two volumes on what he calls the "Optical Illusion" of Europe and the world in general, on the subject of war. Three recently issued volumes

take up the subject of war from a slightly different standpoint. Dr. J. Novic w, Vice President of the International Institute of Sociology, and a writer of several volumes and many magazine articles, discusses "War and Its Alleged Benefits."⁴ The English translation, which is by Mr. Thomas Seltzer, shows that Dr. Novic w is a close reasoner, and knows how to wield a sharp, clear, facile pen. In "Universal Peace—War is Mesmerism,"⁵ Arthur Edward Stilwell, banker and financial expert, appeals to the civilized world to awake from its mesmeric sleep and face the reality, which is that war is just what General Sherman said it was. The preface consists of an open letter addressed to King George, Emperor William and Czar Nicholas, as the three great war lords "serving the Prince of Peace, who could, if they would, end war on the planet." General Hiram M. Chittenden, in his essay "War or Peace: A Present Day Duty and a Future Hope,"⁶ opposes war on practical as well as on ethical grounds. While not advocating complete disarmament by this or any other nation, he does offer some suggestions for the furtherance of universal peace.

APPRECIATIONS, LITERARY AND ARTISTIC

Mr. G. K. Chesterton has given us an appreciation of the life and work of William Blake,⁷ in the form of an extended essay freely illustrated with reduced facsimiles of about forty of Blake's curious drawings. Whatever William Blake's message was,—and there are those who disagree heartily as to its content,—Mr. Chesterton's interpretation of Blake's system of symbolism has been equaled in sincerity and sympathy only by that of the Irish poet Yeats. Swinburne, Gilchrist and the Rossettis helped to make Blake's name known to the world; but whether they placed a correct estimate upon the labors of the great mystic and symbolist is regarded by Mr. Chesterton as a matter of doubt. That the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, which acknowledged Blake as its father, confused the simplicity of his message, the "personal statement of universal truths," seems entirely probable. Chesterton points to a single thread of interpretation that will guide us to an understanding of all Blake's intricate imagery, namely, that, "the more we know of higher things, the more palpable and incarnate we shall find them; that the form filling the heavens is the likeness of the appearance of a man." Mr. Chesterton's comment on Blake the artist, with the comparisons between that artist and Burne-Jones and Audrey Beardsley, will delight those who are content to look at this single phase of Blake's work. That the man was mad, whose last drawing was a gigantic Man-God marking out the heavens with a compass, Mr. Chesterton freely admits. What he denies is that Blake's madness had anything to do with the fact of his being a splendid draughtsman. He advises those who have any doubt of this statement to study Blake's drawing of the Canterbury Pilgrims.

Besides Mr. Chesterton's most excellent essay on William Blake, he has issued a collection of his prefaces to the separate books of Dickens,

¹ The Steel Workers. By John A. Fitch. Charities Publication Committee, New York. 380 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² Homestead. By Margaret F. Byington. Charities Publication Committee, New York. 292 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ The Income Tax. By Edwin R. A. Seligman. Macmillan. 707 pp. \$3.

⁴ War and Its Alleged Benefits. By J. Novic w. Translated by Thomas Seltzer. Henry Holt & Co. 130 pp. \$1.

⁵ Universal Peace—War is Mesmerism. By Arthur E. Stilwell. Banker's Publishing Co. 179 pp. \$2.

⁶ War or Peace: A Present Day Duty and a Future Hope. By Hiram M. Chittenden. A. C. McClurg & Co. 273 pp. \$1.

⁷ William Blake. By Gilbert K. Chesterton. Dutton. 210 pp., ill. 75 cents.

previously published in one of the extensive, cheap editions of the classics, which editions Mr. Chesterton thinks one of the real improvements of modern times. To lovers of Dickens this volume of "Appreciations and Criticisms of Charles Dickens,"¹ is almost indispensable. The author of the immortal "Pickwick Papers," and the creator of the inimitable Mr. Micawber, is carefully considered in relation to his times with a seriousness of intention that belies the opinion, altogether too common in these days, namely, that Dickens was a somewhat vulgar caricaturist. The particular preface written for David Copperfield reveals Mr. Chesterton's analytical critical powers at their best, and also with a foundation of sure knowledge separates the Dickens biography from the Dickens creative imagination as regards the character of "Davie." All that Dickens meant to teach in his works, perhaps more than he meant, but nevertheless, what he really did teach, is best stated in the appreciation of that half forgotten little volume, the "Child's History of England." To quote one admirable phrase anent this history: "Science and art without morality are not dangerous in the sense commonly supposed. They are not dangerous like a fire, but dangerous like a fog. A fire is dangerous in its brightness; a fog in its dullness; and thought without morals is merely dull like a fog. The fog seems to be creeping up the street; putting out lamp after lamp. But this cockney lamp-post which the children love is still crowned with its flame; and when the fathers have forgotten ethics, their babes will turn and teach them." Mr. Chesterton also states with admirable insight that while Thackeray has become a classic, Dickens has done more: he has remained modern.

George Eliot was a native of that midland county of England lying close upon the Welsh border, Warwickshire. We have only come tardily to realize just how much English literature is indebted to this midland county, wherein was perfectly blended the Celtic and Anglo-Saxon genius to the permanent enrichment of our language and literature for all time to come. Shakespeare was a Warwickshire man. From the folklore of his native 'shire he drew the folklore and fairy legend that sparkles in "Midsummer Night's Dream" and "The Tempest." A study of the names in Shakespeare plays will reward the student, for two-thirds of them may be found in the parish records of Warwickshire of Shakespeare's time. In the town of Coventry in this midland county, George Eliot went to school and received the indelible impressions that enabled her to write of rural England with an intimacy no other author may hope to rival. Charles S. Olcott has written a delightful book upon this "greatest English woman born," entitled "George Eliot and Her Times."² It is wisely illustrated with many photographs of the actual scenes of George Eliot's life, and also the settings of her books. There is the "Bede Cottage" and the Trent River, the original of "The Floss": there is a copy of an old print of the "Execution of Savonarola" and numerous portraits of George Eliot at different periods of her life. Mr. Olcott frees all doubters of any misconceptions as regards the union of George Eliot with Mr. Lewes. He reveals her as a devoted wife, and stepmother to Mr. Lewes three

boys, an excellent housekeeper, a woman who was above all else the exponent of "true womanliness."

Frankly expressed opinions of men who have not revealed their actual value by reason of the lack of that perspective which time alone can give, merit admiration not alone for the author's opinions but also for his courage in expressing them. Mr. Henry C. Vedder writes in his second edition of "American Writers of To-day,"³ on Edmund Clarence Stedman, Francis Parkman, William Dean Howells, Charles Dudley Warner, Thomas Bailey Aldrich, Mark Twain, and on down the roll call of our literary hall of fame. Several changes have been made in the text since the first edition appeared some sixteen years ago; new names have been added and increased reputations have received due comment. While this volume is useful and worthy in every respect, it is regrettable that we must have such a flood of books written upon the books of others; and it is painful to feel that it is necessary for our authors to be elucidated in order that we may understand them. Does this quantity of critical and analytical literature presage culture in tabloid form? We hope not, for what we might then receive could not be dignified by the name—literature. There is a law of leisure that governs this esthetic art; when leisure is no more then literature, as such, will have ceased to exist.

NEW VOLUMES OF POETRY

Many of the poets of this age are quiet poets. In some out-of-the-way corner of the sea-girt lands they sit and weave their fancies into poesy, asking no meed of praise or trump of glory to flaunt their rhymes abroad. If we say this is not a poetic age, it is because we will not listen to these quiet voices nor turn our eyes to the slender volumes that pour forth from friendly presses year after year. Perhaps the saddest thing in our short-sighted vision is for a poet to die not knowing whether scorn or commendation await the singing children of his brain. But who dies thus, joins a brave company: he may stand with Chatterton, Sidney, Keats and the immortal Shelley; and surely no man could ask more noble comradeship. This month's gathering of verse brings to us a posthumous book of poems: "Orpheus and Other Poems,"⁴ by Dr. Willis Hall Vittum of St. Paul. This volume came as a complete surprise to Dr. Vittum's friends, as it was not known that he cherished literary ambition, so carefully did he guard his productions from the public eye. "Orpheus" is the classic story of Orpheus and Eurydice, retold in rich measures of genuine poetic feeling. The sonnets farther on in the collection are excellent and studiously correct; but the truest note of poesy lies within some of the lyrics. There are few lines more lovely in poetic simplicity than these from "The Primal Strain":

I hold it true that every man
Has deep within that breast of his,
A strain that reaches back to Pan
And stirs at woodland mysteries.

From Edward Cale Rice we have "The Immortal Lure." In this book there are four dramatic poems: "Giorgione," "Arduin," "O-ume's Gods," and the title poem, "The Immortal Lure." Mr. Rice's work has often been compared to that of

¹ Appreciations and Criticisms of Charles Dickens. By Gilbert K. Chesterton. Dutton. \$2.

² George Eliot and Her Times. By Charles S. Olcott. Crowell. \$2.

³ American Writers of To-Day. By Henry C. Vedder. Silver, Burdett & Co. \$1.50.

⁴ Orpheus and Other Poems. By Willis Hall Vittum. Boston: Gorham Press. \$1.50.

Stephen Phillips, and in many ways there is a great resemblance, namely, in their expression of high vision and in their dramatic power. Mr. Rice's technique is sure and scholarly; his knowledge of his settings flawless and impeccable. In spite of a sense of labored lines here and there, one feels sincerely the passion and power and senuous beauty of the whole. "Arduin" is the story of the man "Arduin of Provence" who lives in old Egypt, and lives only that he may delve into the secrets of alchemy in order to restore to life his beloved wife "Rhea," whose mummy he has kept always in his room within a stone sarcophagus. His brother Ion, in attempt to cure him of this madness, introduces behind the curtains that shield the sarcophagus, his sweetheart Myrrha, who is the image of the dead "Rhea." She it is who rises out of the vapor of Arduin's incantations. Arduin thinks her his beloved Rhea, but the violence of his joy frightens the girl into confession that she loves not him, but his brother, Ion; and Arduin, deeming the arisen "Rhea" false, strangles her. As he drags her back to the stone sarcophagus and discovers therein the mummy undisturbed Ion enters to see the slain body of his Myrrha. This is perfect tragedy, as rounded as a sphere, as terrible as death itself.

And yet after all the conning of the poets and poems of to-day, we have but to turn back to the great Elizabethans to assure ourselves that we still regard poetry as a thing extraneous to life. Where is the crystalline passion of Marlowe and the pastoral sweetness of Greene; where is the luxury of Spenser and the infinite variety of Shakespeare? Some "wind has blown them all away," and yet now and again they return to us in a new dress with lengthy prefaces and voluminous notes. This month we have a reprint of the poems of Sir Philip Sidney,¹ who was the very flower of English chivalry in the great Elizabethan days. There is a most worthy critical introduction by John Drinkwater, which may be highly recommended to those who may desire to study Sidney's achievements and his contribution to poetical literature. The actual poems, the "Astrophel and Stella," and the woodland notes from the "Arcadia," are for the "seeker"; for him who dreams that the "way to Arcady" is not yet lost. To those who care to dwell analytically upon Sidney, Mr. Drinkwater advises a perusal of the monograph upon Sidney by John Addington Symonds.

A series of prose poems written in Walt Whitman style, which show a remarkable spontaneity of fancy and sanity of judgment, and an impressive insight into human nature, have been collected together by Mr. Horace Traubel, and published under the general title "Optimos."² The philosophy is summed up in these words: "Before books and after books is the human soul." Mr. Traubel was a lifelong friend and, for many years, a close associate of Whitman. An excellent portrait of the author is the frontispiece to the volume.

¹ Poems of Sir Philip Sidney. Dutton. 320 pp. 50 cents.

² Optimos. By Horace Traubel. Heusch. 371 pp. \$1.50.

THREE GREAT WORKS OF REFERENCE

Regarding the eagerly awaited eleventh edition of the "Encyclopædia Britannica"³ of which the first fourteen volumes have come from the press, it may be said that in matters of typography, illustration, and maps, the work fully measures up to the standard set by the earlier editions, and in many respects shows marked improvement. As to the character of the text, it is, of course, too early to express a general opinion of the work, but many of the special articles in the volumes already published are models of their kind. Possibly some of the more special and technical subjects are less elaborately treated than in earlier editions, but this lack, if it is a lack, is far more than offset by the fuller treatment of many popular topics heretofore ignored and by the inclusion of biographical sketches of living persons. We shall have more to say of this epoch-marking edition of the "Britannica" in subsequent numbers of this REVIEW.

The tenth volume of the "Catholic Encyclopedia"⁴ concludes with an excellent six-page article on Cardinal John Henry Newman. This sketch of the great Cardinal is contributed by Dr. William Barry of Leamington, England. It is accompanied by a full-page portrait of Newman reproduced through the painting by Oules.

With the publication of the ninth volume of the "New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge,"⁵ it is announced that three more volumes may be expected, probably within the year, to complete this great work. In the volume under review the article likely to prove of chief interest to the clergy is entitled "The History of Preaching" and occupies thirty-two pages. There is also in this volume a detailed history of Presbyterianism. Topics less closely related to strictly religious discussion are "Prison Reform"; "The Red Cross Society"; "Religious Dramas" (including the Passion Play); "Portugal," and "The Philippines."

TWO VOLUMES OF HISTORY

The volume of "Minutes of the Executive Council of the Province of New York,"⁶ published by the State, is most creditable to its editor, State Historian Paltsits, who has himself copied the body of the manuscript printed in this volume, as well as a large number of the accompanying documents, and has reviewed and revised all transcripts directly from the originals.

A useful, informational history of the New England fisheries,⁷ by Dr. Raymond McFarland, of Middlebury College, traces the development of the entire fisheries industry from the earliest times to the present. There are maps and a useful series of notes and documents in the appendix.

³ The Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. I. Edited by Hugh Chisholm. Cambridge University Press. 956 pp., ill. \$4.

⁴ The Catholic Encyclopedia. Vol. X. Robert Appleton Co. 800 pp., ill. \$6.

⁵ The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge. Vol. IX. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 500 pp. \$5.
⁶ Minutes of the Executive Council of the Province of New York. Vol. I. Edited by Victor Hugo Paltsits, State Historian. Published by the State of New York, Albany. 386 pp., ill.

⁷ A History of the New England Fisheries. By Raymond McFarland. University of Pennsylvania, D. Appleton & Co., Agents. 457 pp.



THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

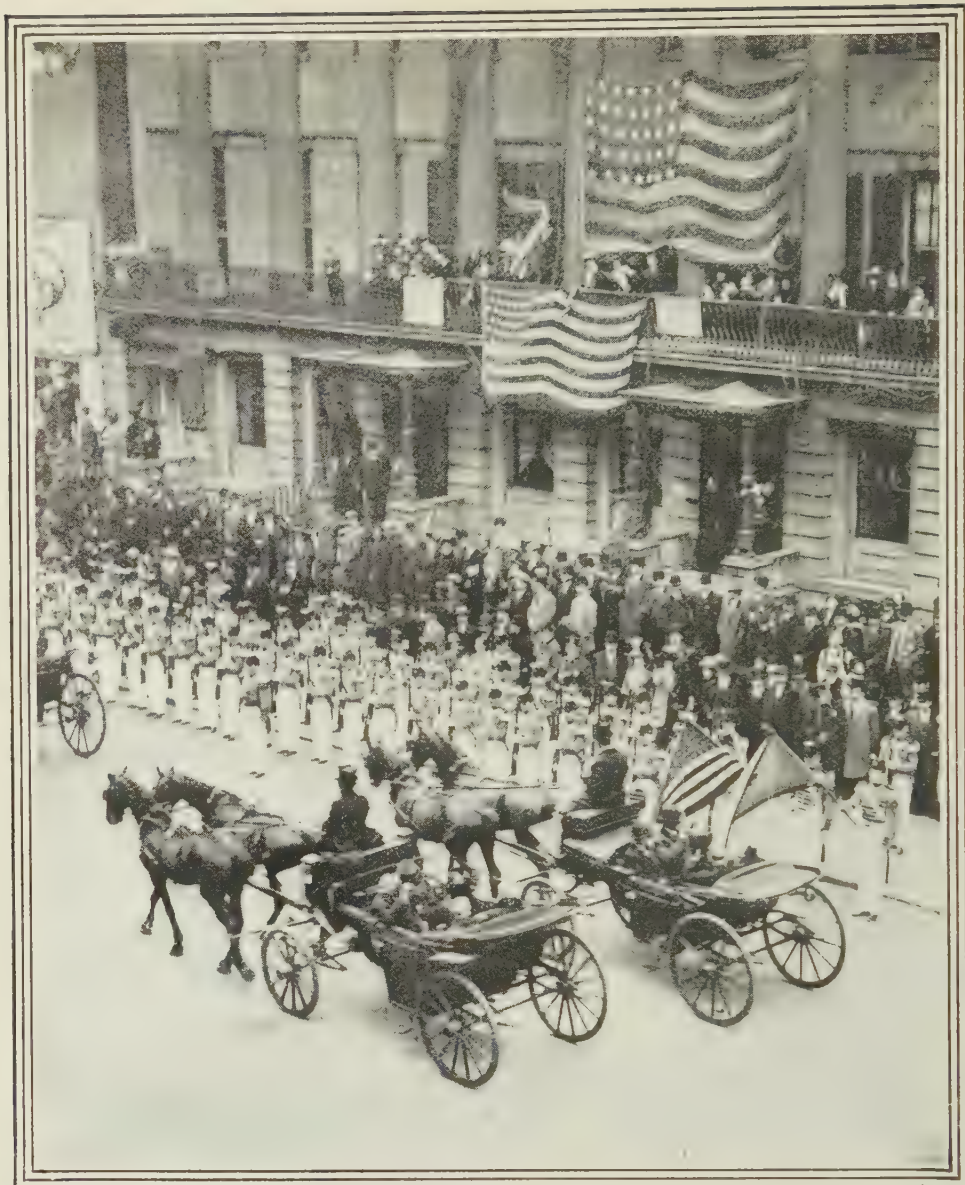
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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VETERANS OF THE FAMOUS "SEVENTH REGIMENT" OF NEW YORK PARADING ON THE 50TH ANNIVERSARY OF ITS DEPARTURE FOR THE FRONT, APRIL 19, 1861

(On the 19th of last month the "Old Seventh" observed the semi-centennial of the proudest day in its long and distinguished history, that day when in answer to President Lincoln's call for defenders of the Union it marched down Broadway, 1200 strong, to embark for Washington, "knowing no North, no South, no East, no West, but only one Union." The elderly men in the carriages are survivors of those gallant defenders of the flag who fifty years before had marched along this same street from the regiment's armory. The large upper flag,—thirty-five stars,—is the same one that had waved there on that April morning of 1861. This house is in the "Colonnade," once the most aristocratic residence block in New York. The photograph was taken from the steps of the Astor Library, which had been vacated four days before after serving the New York public continuously for nearly sixty years. The active members of the Seventh stand at "present arms" as the veterans pass. On page 551 we reproduce a contemporary picture of the march down Broadway in 1861)

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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NEW YORK, MAY, 1911

No. 5

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

Adding Frills to a Doomed Tariff

The curiosities of American law-making have not been few or far between. The student of our legislative annals can cite absurd instances by the hundred. But the future inquirer, looking back upon the pathway of our amazing enactments in the field of revenue legislation, will doubtless linger upon the story of the American-Canadian reciprocal tariff law of 1911 as one of the most notable bits of topsy-turvy action ever obediently entered upon by any legislature in our history. This tariff measure was negotiated wholly from the standpoint of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. If the Republicans had carried the country last November,—and if the Payne-Aldrich tariff had thus been accepted by public opinion as a measure likely to remain in force for ten or twelve years,—nothing could have been more logical than a series of reciprocity agreements with different countries, altering the standard tariff in special ways. But the Democrats were successful last November in electing a Congress that is now in session, and the Democrats were expected to change the Payne-Aldrich tariff beyond all recognition. The pending Canadian tariff arrangement is almost wholly without meaning except as it relates to the Payne-Aldrich measure; yet the Democrats decided to adopt this Canadian measure first, and then to proceed to tear down the general tariff which gives the reciprocity bill its only intrinsic significance.

The Logical Order Disregarded

The Canadian bill, because of its international bearings, had to be initiated through diplomatic channels. But when it reaches Congress it becomes simply a tariff bill with a vast number of details; and it is properly subject to all those processes of study, debate, and amendment which are applied to any other tariff bill that has been reported out of the Ways and Means

Committee. Close trade relations with Canada are, indeed, to be wished for. Many years before the existing authorities at Washington were in public office, this magazine was advocating such relations with the Dominion. But there is an orderly way in which revenue legislation and tariff-making ought to proceed; and the natural plan would seem to have been the postponement of special tariff arrangements with particular countries until after all general tariff adjustments had been agreed upon. For example, all tariff reformers of all parties have for several years promised to put wood pulp and ordinary printing paper made from pulp upon the general free list. But if these articles are to go almost at once upon the general free list, they can have no place in a special agreement with a particular country.

Yet the Democrats Have a Method

Nevertheless, Congress had been called in special session by authority of the President, charged with the solemn duty of modifying the Payne-Aldrich tariff as respects one particular country. The Democratic House, with a sweetness of temper never previously exhibited under similar party conditions, made answer that it would pass the Republican administration's reciprocity bill with the greatest pleasure in life, and without giving the slightest attention to its contents. The Democratic leaders declared, somewhat contemptuously, that to pass this Canadian bill at the present time could have no other result except to hasten the swift destruction of the whole edifice of Republican high protection as seen in the Payne-Aldrich measure,—a measure that Mr. Taft himself had extolled as the very climax of good tariff construction. Thus in the apparently illogical and topsy-turvy procedure of the new Democratic House, there is in reality a masterful method, though

it has little to do with Canada. The Democrats declare it to be their purpose to tear down rapidly the high tariff wall that the Republicans have maintained ever since the Civil War. From the standpoint of Republican protectionism, President Taft is regarded as having made a profound mistake in going forward with the Canadian negotiations after the Democratic victory of last November. He had staked everything upon pushing this Canadian measure to a quick conclusion. But he had thereby precipitated an immediate reopening of the tariff question all along the line, when it would have been better Republican policy not to have called a special session, and not to have put any particular urgency into an attempt to force immediate Canadian reciprocity through a Democratic House.

*Fine Courage
in a Sudden
Test*

It is true that the Democrats are compelled, by the special session, to act quickly. But this very necessity of quick action seems to have lent them fine qualities of decision, courage, and breadth of view that might have failed, in some degree, if they had been obliged to wait until the regular session next December. If their tariff program had awaited the long session, it would have been dragged inevitably by Senate debating to the very moment of the Presidential and Congressional conventions of 1912. Since the farmers of the country do not like the reciprocity bill, they will scarcely be appeased until they have helped the Democrats to put all sorts of manufac-

tured articles, which farmers buy, upon a basis of greatly reduced tariff charges, if not upon the free list itself. Before reporting the reciprocity bill for its second swift passage through the House, Chairman Underwood of the Ways and Means Committee announced a long list of articles which, he declared, would at once be placed upon the free list by way of compensating the farmers for the treatment accorded to them in the Canadian measure. Considered, therefore, upon its own merits as a permanent arrangement with Canada, the pending reciprocity measure cannot be taken seriously. Democratic members of Congress last month,—highly intelligent members, moreover,—were admitting in private the absurdity of passing a special tariff measure applying to one country, at the very moment when a vast number of changes were about to be made in the general tariff. They further admitted that they had not read the Canadian agreement and did not care to give themselves that much trouble. They were seizing upon it, however, with much joy as an instrument forged by their political enemies and put in their hands as admirably designed for a battering ram with which to begin the general assault upon the whole structure of the Republican tariff.

*Unexpected
Demand for
Reform*

It is plain that the country is not in a partisan mood, and that business interests of all sorts—including agricultural—would have preferred a quiet year, free from political and legislative agitation. Neither Republicans nor Democrats desired the extra session. But since the President insisted upon calling it, the country is plainly won over to the idea of encouraging a great deal of rapid and somewhat radical tariff legislation. If there had been no extra session, and the Canadian agreement had not been pressed, the country would have been entirely ready to listen to the arguments in favor of allowing the Tariff Board to proceed in its own methodical fashion, and to bring forward reports from time to time in the future upon which to base tariff revision, one schedule at a time, with cautious sliding-scale reductions running through a series of years. But against its preferences, the country found itself with an extra session of Congress upon its hands. And it discovered a courageous and harmonious Democratic majority, willing to face the responsibility of tariff reduction. And so there was a quick veering about of public opinion last month, and an obvious relish in all quarters for the idea of a very considerable tariff reduction.



A WILLING EAR AT LAST!
From the *Traveler* (Boston)

It was commonly held that the needed information was already well enough in hand. The farmers and consumers were heard demanding an average level of tariff rates at least 30 or 40 per cent. below the existing altitudes. Courageous persons were proposing the immediate elimination of a number of tricks and complications that have been charged against various schedules.

Senate Expected to Catch the Mood

There seems to be quite as much prevailing sentiment in favor of this sort of tariff revision among the Republican voters of the country as among the Democratic. It is, of course, evident that a series of measures passed swiftly through the new Democratic House will be subjected to strong challenge and extended debate in the Senate. But when it comes to the revision of textile duties, and some other tariff schedules, it will be found that the progressive Republican Senators who refused to vote for the Payne-Aldrich bill on its final passage will be supported by their home constituents, both Republican and Democratic, in helping to bring about substantial tariff reductions. The tariff question is no longer a sharp issue as between parties. The country has developed far beyond the need of the sort of legislation embodied in the Payne-Aldrich measure. That bill two years ago was created by a log-rolling of sectional and locality interests, and a lobbying of combined private interests.

Two Years Ago, and Now, — a Contrast

There was no aroused spirit, two years ago, in favor of tariff reform from the standpoint of the general welfare. If Mr. Taft at that time had possessed the experience that he has since acquired, and had realized the sweeping nature of those executive powers, that he no longer hesitates to use in all directions, he would doubtless have instructed Congress broadly and thoroughly as to the nature and meaning of a general tariff revision. The results would have been accepted by the country as disposing of the issue for another ten years. But the opportunity was lost. There was nobody, excepting a handful of insurgent Senators, who spoke powerfully for the broad national view. Even the Democratic States of the South were more concerned with getting their particular products protected in the tariff than with advocating a general revision. Their answer to this charge, however, is a reasonable one. They assert that the country was not holding them responsible for a tariff revision that Mr. Roosevelt,



HE CAN'T STOP NOW!
From the *Dispatch* (St. Louis)

Mr. Taft, and the Republicans had promised to grant in case of a party victory in 1908. The situation has entirely changed, however, and the Democrats are now responsible for all initial proceedings. The country, furthermore, is aroused in favor of real tariff reform; and in so far as Democratic bills passed through the House are sincere and reasonable in their nature, the Senate will not be expected by the country to reject those bills merely because of their Democratic origin. Some of them should become laws.

Proposed Inquiries

The House Democrats have announced that when they have passed a certain number of bills which will occupy the attention of the Senate for weeks or months to come, they will proceed to investigate the expenditures and methods of the executive departments. There is no reason why they should not do this, and there are many reasons why they should do it with great thoroughness. A Republican administration, like the present one, which has had every opportunity to render the country faithful and honorable service, should welcome investigation and should have pride

in making an exhibit of all its expenditures and transactions. The Post-Office Department, for example, should be glad to make the fullest showing of the way in which it has used its opportunities during the past two years, and should welcome the chance to give good and sufficient reasons for many activities that the country would like to know about. Mr. Aldrich, as the leader of the Republican Senate, declared that proper business methods in the departments would save Uncle Sam several hundred million dollars each year. It would be useful to see if candid, searching, friendly inquiry by Democratic committees of the House might not help to bring about important economies.

*Some Things
to be
Looked Into*

Except for Mr. Cleveland's two separated terms of four years each, the Republicans have held continuous executive authority for exactly fifty years. It is now fourteen years since the end of Mr. Cleveland's last term. In almost every department and bureau of the executive government, as it seems to us, there has been continuous improvement in the intelligence and efficiency with which public business is transacted. But many parts of the executive machinery are overloaded with supernumerary and inefficient people, while other parts are undermanned. The most upright and painstaking department head finds himself heir to conditions that he is without power to reform. Some of these situations,—freely mentioned as they are in private conversation among conscientious officials in the present administration,—might be radically improved as a result of Democratic investigation, which could be drastic without being unjust. We have reached a period when it is imperative that we should put efficiency into the work of popular government all along the line, from our local and city administrations up to the national.

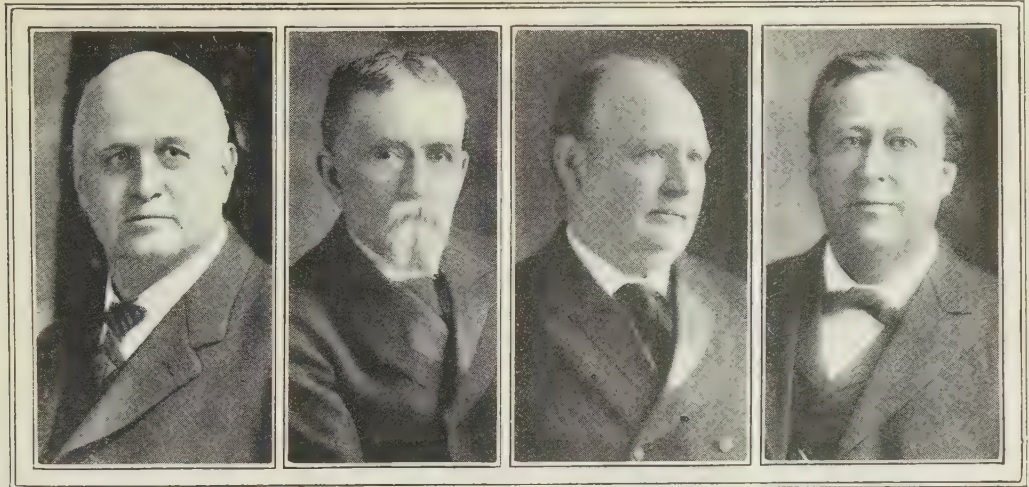
*Investigation
of the
Postal Service*

Take, for example, the public service that is of the most widespread popular interest, namely, the Post-Office. The people of the country are clamoring for great extensions of the work of this department. They desire a parcels post, they have committed themselves to a general system of postal savings-banks, and frequent arguments are heard or read in favor of the addition of the telegraph and the telephone to our postal service, as in various foreign countries. But how can we intrust these added responsibilities to the Post-Office Department until we give it a modern busi-

ness organization? From top to bottom it is permeated with politics. A bi-partisan, joint commission of the two Houses of Congress recently investigated the Post-Office Department, as regards various aspects of its business, with unusual thoroughness. The report of that commission declared that a business reorganization of the Post-Office Department was absolutely necessary as the starting point for all other reforms and changes. As now carried on, the department is unbusinesslike, chaotic, and without reliable statistics of its own transactions. Judge Moon, the new chairman of the Post-Office Committee of the House, was himself a member of the commission that made this important report. Nothing could be more valuable from the standpoint of the citizenship of the entire country than a determined effort on the part of Judge Moon and his committee to pass a bill reorganizing thoroughly the work of the Post-Office Department, and providing for a permanent Director of Posts with a group of competent assistants.

*Business
Methods
Needed*

It is, of course, well understood that the Democrats, either through the Committee on Expenditures in the Post-Office Department, or otherwise, are expecting to investigate many phases of the recent activities of the Department. Resolutions to that end have been passed, and the leaders of the House have announced their intention. It might be profitable for this committee to ascertain what influences have prevented, during the past year or two, all progress with this scheme of business reorganization that was so generally favored and that was the outcome of so important and costly an investigation. Nothing has happened to render obsolete the work of that joint commission. Chairman Weeks, of the House, succeeding Chairman Overstreet, showed the fullest respect, as everyone knows, for conclusions which he himself was prepared to push. In the other House, Senator Penrose, as chairman, and Senator Carter as ranking Republican member of the Post-Office Committee, were official sponsors of a measure which (as pending last year) bore Senator Carter's name. The time would seem to have come for a serious revival of this necessary project. Judge Moon's membership in the former commission, and his chairmanship of the present committee, render it especially fitting that he should press forward the cause of business methods as against political methods in the Post-Office Department. These things belong primarily to Congress.



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S. M. SPARKMAN, FLORIDA (Rivers and Harbors)

JOHN LAMB, VIRGINIA (Agriculture)

H. D. CLAYTON, ALABAMA (Judiciary)

JOHN A. MOON, TENNESSEE (Post-Offices)

SOME NEW DEMOCRATIC CHAIRMEN OF IMPORTANT HOUSE COMMITTEES

*Employees
of the
House*

The Democratic House promptly showed its tendency towards retrenchment and reform by its caucus exposure of a great number of useless salaried places on the list of the employees of the House itself. The details of this exposure are so ridiculous as almost to challenge credulity. So much pressure for appointments to office was brought to bear upon each Democratic member that it was evidently going to be a painful process to abolish the sinecures. Nevertheless, the battle was virtually won when the facts were brought out into public view. Democrats are inherently neither better nor worse than Republicans. But it is evident that a change of party control often gives opportunity to get rid of abuses that have grown up almost unperceived. Clean-cut reform in the patronage of the House itself would be taken as an evidence of good faith if the House were proposing, through its committees on expenditure in the executive departments, to recommend similar abolition of sinecures in various services or bureaus.

*The
Democrats
Accordant and
Resolute*

The Democrats had, on April 1 met in caucus and prepared themselves for the opening of the Sixty-second Congress on April 4. It would seem within bounds to say that no previous Congressional caucus had ever accomplished so much important business in one day. The committee assignments, which had been prepared by the Ways and Means Committee, were accepted with less disturbance than has

usually attended the making up of the committees by a Speaker. Rules were adopted for the Sixty-second Congress, differing in some very important respects from those of the Sixty-first. A program of legislation for the special session was presented and adopted. Eight matters were listed in this program: First, the election of United States Senators by the people; second, publicity of campaign funds before and after election; third, various matters of tariff and revenue legislation; fourth, reapportionment of seats in the House under the Thirteenth Census; fifth, resolutions having to do with the investigation of the executive departments; sixth, the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as States; seventh, any deficiency appropriations that conditions may require; eighth, legislation relating to the District of Columbia. The changes in the rules are exceedingly important and are intended to facilitate a radical cutting down of expenditures and a successful handling of particular parts of the tariff without obstructive amendments not germane to the particular matter in hand.

*The
New
Leaders*

Among the leading chairmen of House committees are to be mentioned the following: Ways and Means, Oscar W. Underwood, of Alabama; Appropriations, John J. Fitzgerald, of New York; Judiciary, Henry D. Clayton, of Alabama; Interstate Commerce, William C. Adamson, of Georgia; Rivers and Harbors, Stephen M. Sparkman, of Florida; Agriculture, John Lamb, of Virginia; Foreign Affairs, William Sulzer, of



Photograph by Brown Bros., N. Y.

SPEAKER CLARK AND JAMES R. MANN

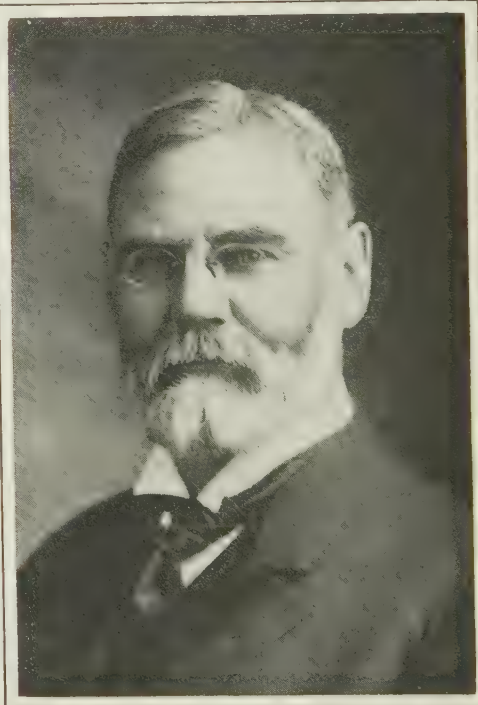
(The Democratic and Republican leaders of the new House)

New York; Military Affairs, James Hay, of Virginia; Naval Affairs, Lemuel P. Padgett, of Tennessee; Post-Office and Post Roads, John A. Moon, of Tennessee; Public Lands, Joseph T. Robinson, of Arkansas; Indian Affairs, John H. Stephens, of Texas; Territories, Henry D. Flood, of Virginia; Insular Affairs, William A. Jones, of Virginia; Banking and Currency, Arsene P. Pujo, of Louisiana; Coinage, Weights and Measures, Thomas W. Hardwick, of Georgia; Merchant Marine and Fisheries, Joshua W. Alexander, of Missouri; Public Buildings and Grounds, Morris Shepard, of Texas; Pensions, William Richardson, of Alabama; District of Columbia, Ben Johnson, of Kentucky; Irrigation, William R. Smith, of Texas; Immigration, John L. Burnett, of Alabama. As mentioned in these pages last month. Robert L. Henry, of Texas, is chairman of the Committee on Rules. Although the Southern men seem to have nearly all the important chairmanships, it must be remembered that this is due to their longer service in Congress. The new Democrats from Northern States were given better committee assignments than the new Democrats from the South, and the fairness of the work of Mr. Underwood's committee was commended on all hands. It seems likely that the several committees on expenditure in the executive departments may assume a somewhat unanticipated prominence.

Speaker Clark
and the
Message

The Honorable Champ Clark of Missouri was at once elected Speaker upon the opening of the session on April 4. His speech reminded us that the Democrats have not controlled the House for sixteen years, and called upon his associates to meet faithfully the test to which they would be subjected. He elaborated somewhat upon the points in the legislative program which had been adopted in the caucus of April 1. It was thought rather curious that he made no allusion to the one matter concerning which the special session was called. President Taft's message was read to Congress on the following day. It was very brief, and merely called attention to the Canadian reciprocity agreement which had been transmitted by him to the Sixty-first Congress on January 26. The last paragraph of this brief message reads as follows:

I am constrained in deference to popular sentiment and with a realizing sense of my duty to the great masses of our people, whose welfare is involved, to urge upon your consideration early action on this agreement. In concluding the negotiations the representatives of the two countries bound themselves to use their utmost efforts to bring about the tariff changes provided for in the agreement by concurrent legislation at Washington and Ottawa. I have felt it my duty therefore not to acquiesce in relegation of action until the opening of the Congress in December, but to use my



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HON. JAMES R. MANN

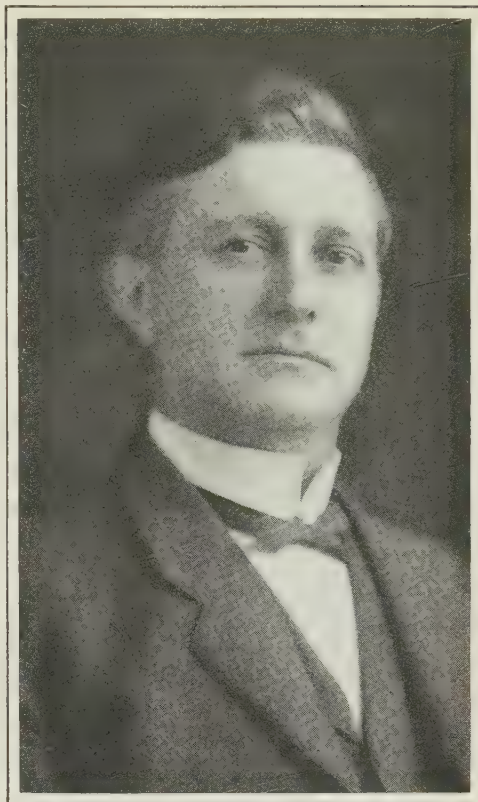
constitutional prerogative and convoke the Sixty-second Congress in extra session in order that there shall be no break of continuity in considering and acting upon this most important subject.

*Mr. Mann
and the
Republicans*

The Republicans of the House had chosen James R. Mann, of Illinois, as their leader, this being an excellent selection in view of Mr. Mann's particularly gallant qualities as a fighting parliamentarian. Mr. Mann has declined to serve upon any committee and will give his whole energy to the minority leadership. The Republican caucus authorized Mr. Mann to assign the Republican members to the minority places left for them on the various committees by the Democratic caucus. Thus Mr. Payne of New York is the leading Republican member of the Ways and Means Committee, and ex-Speaker Cannon is the ranking Republican on the Appropriations Committee. In preparing his assignments Mr. Mann gave full recognition to the so-called Republican insurgents of the House, and the cleavage line has for the present disappeared. The Republicans complained that the Democrats were not allowing them a sufficient number of places on the large committees; but this protest was more for the sake of party form than because there had been any real injustice.

*Reciprocity
in the
House*

Within a week the House was well organized and in good working shape. The Reciprocity bill was introduced by Chairman Underwood on April 12, was reported favorably from the committee on the following day, and was under lively debate on the 15th, with the assurance that it would be passed within a few days. The star speakers of the first day were Mr. Kitchin, of North Carolina, and Mr. Asher Hinds, the new member from Maine, who has been the chief adviser of former Speakers on parliamentary law. Mr. Kitchin pointed out Republican tariff inconsistencies in a speech of much shrewdness and humor, while Mr. Hinds presented a thoughtful and elaborate discourse upon the relation of the protective policy to our agriculture, arguing with much learning and seriousness against the pending measure. Although some of the leading Republican Congressmen thought it best to support the agreement, a majority of them stood with ex-Speaker Cannon, Mr. Payne, and Mr. Dalzell in unyielding opposition. Mr. Cannon spoke against the bill on the 19th in an elaborate defense of general Republican policy, occupying several hours. The whole of the 20th was occupied with the reciprocity de-



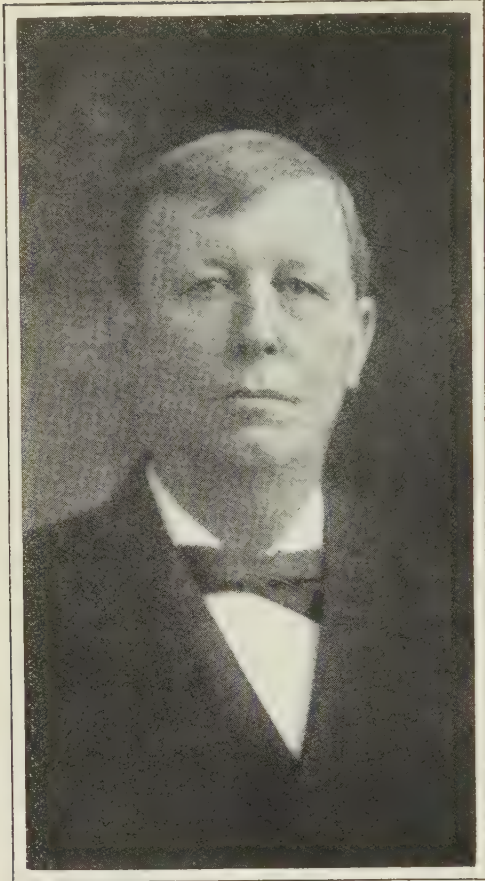
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HON. CLAUDE KITCHIN, OF NORTH CAROLINA

bate, and the vote was taken on April 21, after Mr. Dalzell had opposed the bill and Mr. McCall and Mr. Underwood had defended it. At the White House, where close track is now kept of the position of members of Congress on pending measures, it was asserted that fifty-seven Senators were pledged to support the Reciprocity bill. Since there are ninety-two seats in the Senate, it would seem reasonably certain of becoming a law.

*Again, the
Election of
Senators*

On April 13, by a vote of 297 to 15, the House passed a resolution providing for the election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people. The fifteen opponents were Republicans, nearly all of them men of prominence and of conviction. Mr. Cannon, as representing these objectors, did not protest against the popular choosing of Senators but only against that part of the resolution which takes away from Congress the right to exercise authority as to the manner, time, and place of holding the elections. It will be remembered that when a similar resolution was under debate in the Senate in February



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HON. WILLIAM W. RUCKER, OF MISSOURI
(Chairman of the Committee on Elections)

it failed of passage because of the so-called Sutherland amendment, which reserved to Congress the right of supervising elections of members of either House of Congress. Southern Democrats prefer that the control of electoral conditions should be left to the States themselves. It is probable that the Senate, with its change of membership, will adopt the resolution as passed by the House, but not without debate upon the same lines as that of a few weeks ago. Meanwhile, the Minnesota Legislature last month provided for something like the Oregon method; and what New Jersey has done will be found in a paragraph on another page of this REVIEW.

*Campaign
Publicity*

Mr. Rucker of Missouri, who had been prominent as presenting the bill for the popular election of Senators, was also at the front with the measure, which passed on April 14, requiring publicity of campaign contributions be-

fore as well as after election. A Republican insurgent, Mr. Jackson of Kansas, proposed that publicity should also be given to expenses attendant upon primary elections. The Republicans and a large Democratic minority succeeded in adding this scheme to the Rucker bill. But the Southern Democratic leaders did not wish federal interference in their typical preëlection contests, and in turn were convincing enough to have the amendment withdrawn. The practical object of the measure as passed is to prevent, in so far as possible, the collection of large and mysterious campaign funds for the Presidential and Congressional elections of 1912. While such attempts to emancipate our elections from the undue use of money can be evaded in many ways, they have undoubtedly some deterrent value. The New Jersey law, as just adopted, is explained on page 527.

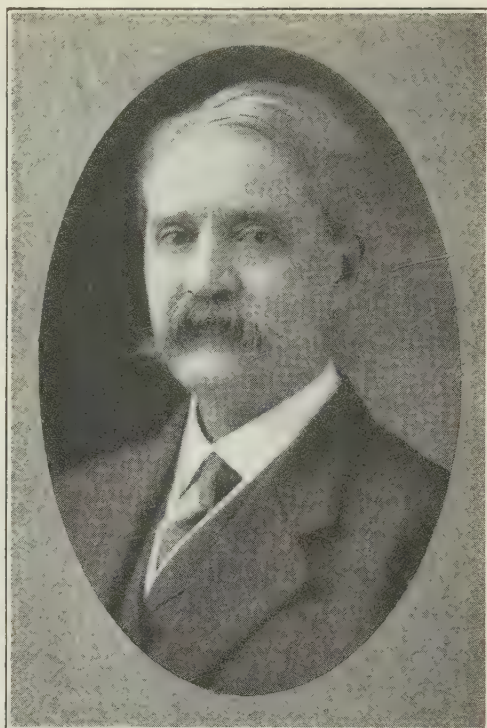
Senate Progressives in Good Standing The Senate, as our readers must remember, still remains Republican by a majority of nine. There has, however, been a very wide difference of view between the so-called "Old Guard" or "stand-pat" Republicans and the well-organized group of Republican progressives. These progressives are now in a position to turn the scale. The masterful leaders of high-church Republican orthodoxy are no longer in the Senate, and their remaining adherents are more tolerant and accommodating. It has begun to dawn upon the minds of certain Eastern Senators that the so-called "insurgents" are representative of large masses of intelligent Republican voters. It was not so very long ago that these progressive Republicans were solemnly declared to be excommunicated by the real heads of the party. All aid and comfort was withdrawn from them. The fires of the inquisition were cheerfully lighted in many States in order that the insurgents might perish for their sins of non-conformity. But so swiftly have things changed that it almost makes one dizzy to keep up with the evolutions of Republican faith and practice. The head of the party, having excommunicated Cummins and the Republican progressives who did not like the Payne-Aldrich tariff, has now called the Democratic Congress in special session to hasten the battering-down of that very tariff wall; and so far has the overturn gone that Cummins and the insurgents have already become the chief reliance of those Republicans who wish to save tariff protection as a principle and to some extent as a practical policy.

*Recognized
in all
Committees*

In the reorganization of the Senate committees, the Progressives, who have heretofore been left out in the cold, are amply recognized. The Committee on Committees itself, with Mr. Gallinger of New Hampshire as chairman, includes Messrs. LaFollette, Bourne, Cummins, and Bristow, all of them insurgents of the most flagrant character. The so-called Steering Committee, with Mr. Cullom of Illinois as chairman, includes progressives like Borah of Idaho and Brown of Nebraska, together with strong progressive sympathizers like Nelson of Minnesota and William Alden Smith of Michigan. It was definitely agreed that the progressives should have their ample share of chairmanships and important assignments. Thus Mr. Cummins and Mr. LaFollette were to go on the Finance Committee, Mr. Clapp of Minnesota was to be chairman of the Interstate Commerce Committee, Mr. Bourne of Oregon was slated for the Post-Office Committee, and so on.

*A Choice
Between
Progress and
Disaster*

While the progressives were compelled in the last Congress to hold themselves as a fairly distinct group, it did not follow that the intolerance which had placed them in that position was felt or shown by all of the Senators who usually voted with the majority. Thus Senator Root, with his strong position against Lorimer, was in certain matters working with the progressives; while in nothing was he of a factional spirit or an intolerant mind. Even Mr. Penrose of Pennsylvania, who now becomes a very strong organization leader, is able to perceive that the progressive Republicans are the true representatives of several important Republican States. When the Republican party becomes reactionary, Whiggish, and wholly bound up with financial and corporate interests, there can be nothing ahead of it but disastrous defeat. It began its career as a progressive and reforming party, setting broad national interests over against local conservatism and selfishness. The colossal Republican mistakes of the year 1909 are not likely to be retrieved at once. High statesmanship, true courage, and the keen sense of responsibility seemed to have lost all place in the dominant councils of the Republican party. The people of the United States have become impatient of old and established party methods, and they are going to try some new and so-called progressive experiments, which may not be wholly wise but which have sincerity and conviction behind them.



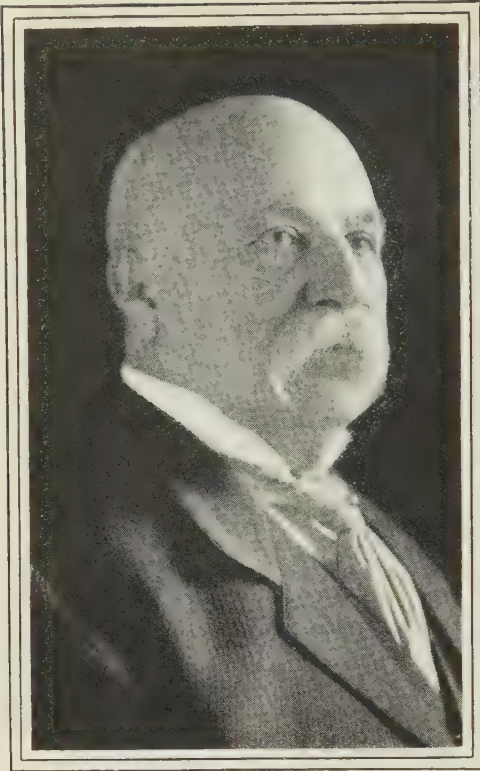
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SENATOR CUMMINS, OF IOWA

(Who has now taken a leading place in the management of the Senate)

*Democrats
in the Senate*

Party changes in three or four States will give the Democrats a majority in the Senate as well as in the House. It is important, therefore, to know whether the Democratic Senators are to be as untrammelled, and as responsive to the new demands of public opinion, as the Democrats of the House are showing themselves to be. Apparently the progressive Democrats are not going to control their own party in the Senate without some struggle. In the minds of everybody in Washington, Senator Bailey of Texas, more than any other man of either party, represents in the Senate the point of view of those important business interests that are supposed to have been behind Mr. Lorimer of Illinois, of whom Bailey was the chief defender. Mr. Bailey's affiliations, whatever they may be, are regarded as rendering him unfit to be the open and avowed leader of the Democrats in the Senate, although he is considered their ablest debater. Those who might have been glad to support Bailey for the leadership agreed upon Senator Martin of Virginia. Mr. William J. Bryan had made his appearance in Washington, and he took an active and open part in this struggle, seeking to defeat the

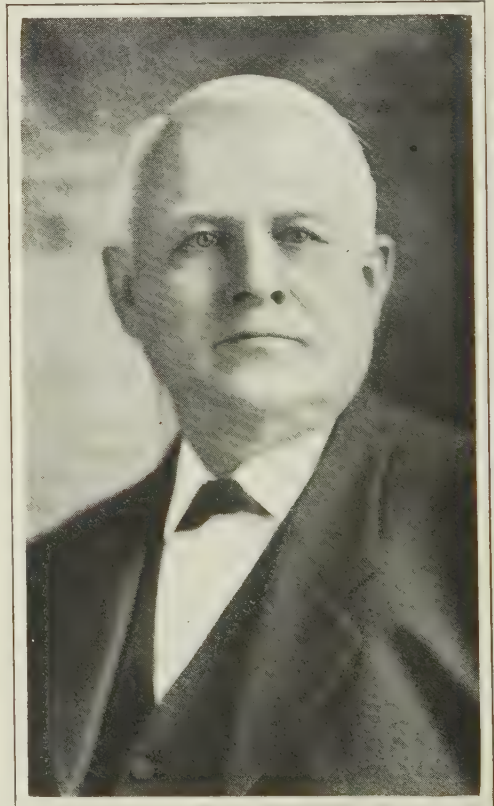


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 SENATOR JACOB H. GALLINGER, OF NEW HAMPSHIRE
 (Chairman of the Committee on Committees)

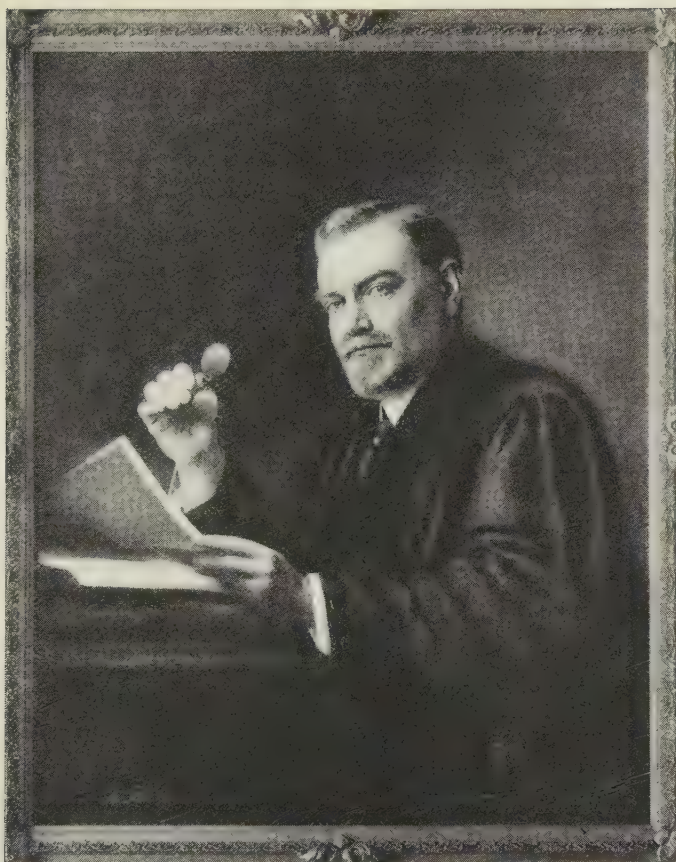
Bailey-Martin combination. Those opposed to Martin agreed upon Senator Shively of Indiana. The new Senators showed a marked tendency to support Shively and the progressive wing. Thus Senator Kern of Indiana, who ran on the ticket with Bryan in 1908, was active in working for Shively, and it was regarded as significant that Judge O'Gorman, the new Senator from New York, and Mr. Johnson, the new Senator from Maine, were numbered with the sixteen who voted for Shively, and who were defeated by the twenty-one who voted for Martin. It does not follow that all of the men who voted for Martin were opposed to the views of the progressive Democrats represented by Stone of Missouri, Owen and Gore of Oklahoma, and others. The country at this moment is more interested in principles than in parties, and the work of the Senate this year will not be judged from the standpoint of party expediency. Thus if the Democrats of the House make some good tariff changes, the country will not wish to see such reforms obstructed by the Senate merely because it is Republican while the House is Democratic. But the Senate debates, and is slow.

*The
 Lorimer Case
 Open Again*

As this REVIEW declared last month, the vote of the Senate in declining to unseat Lorimer, of Illinois, was by no means final, inasmuch as the Senate could open the case at any time. A day or two after the beginning of the present session Senator LaFollette introduced a resolution naming a number of new Senators as a committee to investigate the case in the light of new evidence brought forward in Illinois. Mr. H. H. Kohlsaas, editor of the *Chicago Record-Herald*, had declared that a fund of a hundred thousand dollars had been raised to elect Lorimer. A prominent and respected business man appeared before the Illinois investigating committee and declared that he had been Kohlsaas's informer and that he himself had been asked to subscribe to the corruption fund. There is every reason to believe that Mr. Lorimer's seat will be declared vacant, and it is quite possible that the whole story of the corruption fund may be brought to light. Several new Senators, like Kenyon of Iowa, come with the firm purpose to declare the Lorimer seat vacant.



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 SENATOR MARTIN, OF VIRGINIA
 (Chosen Democratic leader)



HON. JAMES A. O'GORMAN, THE NEW SENATOR FROM NEW YORK

(Photograph from a painting by A. Benziger)

*Activity in
the
Senate*

The Senate was slow in completing its committee organization, having occupied about three weeks of the session with preliminaries. Senator Cummins had announced that when the reciprocity bill came over from the House he would move to amend it by adding a great many articles to its free list, including lumber, coal, iron ore, textiles and clothing, meat and flour, and various manufactures, such as agricultural implements. This announcement would show that the progressive Senators will be prepared to meet the House Democrats at least half-way in the business of general tariff revision. Senator Cummins also introduced a resolution calling for a report of the national Monetary Commission in December and its abolition at that time. Senator Aldrich and Mr. Vreeland have undoubtedly rendered valuable service on that commission, but the greater part of the membership is regarded as nominal rather than active. The commission has been

in existence more than three years, and the time has come when its final conclusions ought to be made the basis of a valiant attempt in Congress to reform our monetary and banking systems.

*The New York
Senatorial
Election*

The country is rightly interested in knowing about the new Senator from New York. Quite regardless of the personal fitness of Mr. Sheehan, whose candidacy deadlocked the Legislature at Albany for so many weeks, it was felt by Democrats all over the country that there were circumstances surrounding Sheehan's selection by the caucus which must render his success harmful to the party. While the Sheehan candidacy was brought forward and maintained by Murphy, the Tammany boss, it was not supposed that this was due to any fondness for Sheehan himself. There were large business interests, apparently, which had brought Sheehan forward and had secured Murphy's promise of the Senatorship.

It is not necessary in these condensed pages to review the long story of the breaking of the deadlock. The Hon. James A. O'Gorman, a Supreme Court Justice in New York City, was suddenly elected. A new caucus had been held on March 27, and Sheehan had been dropped. The Republicans had offered to join the insurgent Democrats in selecting a Democratic Senator of independent character and high repute. If the majority Democrats had not dropped Sheehan it is quite possible that the Republicans would have helped to elect a man like Osborne. It is true that Judge O'Gorman had been identified with Tammany Hall and at one time was the grand sachem of that famous society. But his advancement both in politics and in his profession seems to have been due wholly to his genuine merits. For eleven or twelve years he has served as a Supreme Court Justice, and his reputation among lawyers of all parties is very high. Since Tammany is in point of fact the largest part of the Democracy of New York, it must be expected that the Tammany members of the Legislature will have a leading part in the choice of a

Democratic Senator. What the country wishes to know is whether or not the man chosen is fit to be a Senator of the United States. Judge O'Gorman's larger reputation is yet to be made. The people of the State of New York were in almost total ignorance of him when he was elected. What they have learned of him by diligent inquiry since his election has been very favorable as to his character and his intelligence. He is under no obligations to take orders from anybody, and he has an untrammelled opportunity to serve his State and his country on a high plane of statesmanship.

Senator
Kenyon, of
Iowa

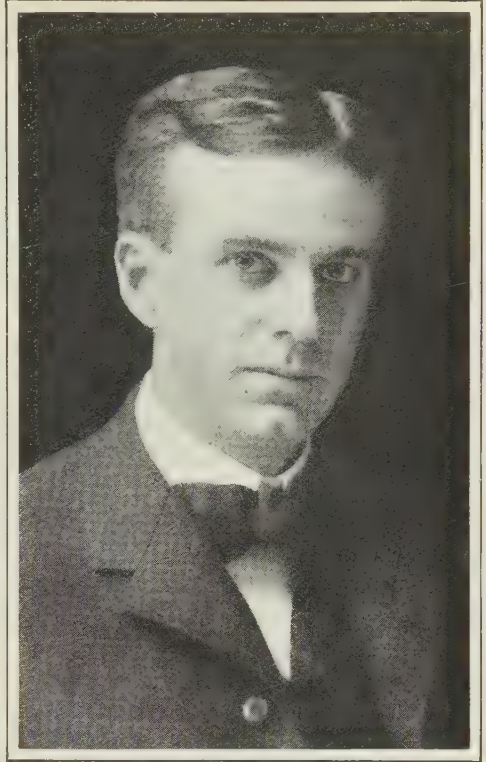
Iowa has been having a hard time over the successorship to the late Senator Dolliver. The Governor of the State had appointed the picturesque and eloquent Lafayette Young, editor of the *Capital*, to fill the place until the Legislature should act. Senator Young stayed on through the last session of Congress and held his place in the early days of the present session because the Legislature at Des Moines was deadlocked. After nearly



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.

SENATOR AND MRS. O'GORMAN, WITH THEIR SIX DAUGHTERS AND SON

three months of balloting, a choice was reached on April 12, when William S. Kenyon, of Ft. Dodge, was elected. Mr. Kenyon is forty-two years old, a graduate of Iowa College at Grinnell, and an excellent lawyer who had for some years been general attorney for the Illinois Central Railroad. He was Dolliver's fellow-townsmen and close friend, and is a warm friend of Senator Cummins, who is chiefly responsible for his election. Mr. Kenyon belongs to the progressive wing of the party, and his appearance in the Senate will be in the nature of a compensation for the loss of Dolliver. For some months past Mr. Kenyon has been one of the lawyers of the Department of Justice aiding in the enforcement of the Sherman Anti-Trust law and particularly in the cases against the beef-packers' combination. He will hold the Senate seat until March, 1913. The Republicans of Iowa will nominate his successor in general primary election in June of next year. Senator "Lafe" Young, who is regarded as having the especial support of President Taft and the "stand pat" Republicans, declares that he will enter the primaries next year with the intention of securing a large popular majority. Mr. Kenyon will presumably be a candidate also, and in that case would have to rely upon the support of the progressives who have stood behind Mr. Cummins and the late Mr. Dolliver.



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HON. WILLIAM S. KENYON
(The new Senator from Iowa)

*The Income
Tax in the
Legislatures*

The income-tax amendment to the federal Constitution is faring better in the State legislatures than was predicted last year. For the first time since the passage by Congress of the resolution submitting this amendment, State legislatures have been in session in about two-thirds of the States. Alabama voted in favor of ratification in 1909, and in 1910 the States of Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Texas approved the amendment, while Louisiana, Massachusetts, New York, Rhode Island, and Virginia rejected it. The elections of last November so changed the complexion of legislatures that it seems quite within the bounds of probability that both Massachusetts and New York may reverse their earlier votes. Since the first of January the legislatures of Arkansas, Colorado, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, South Dakota and Tennessee have voted in favor of the amendment, while the legislatures of Arkansas, Missouri, New Hampshire, Utah, Vermont, and West Virginia have acted adversely.

*New Jersey
Election
Reforms*

The whole country has been interested, during the past few months, in the somewhat radical legislation of the conservative old State of New Jersey. It will be remembered that in the campaign of last fall Governor Wilson went beyond his party platform in his promises to remedy what had come to be generally conceded as serious and vital defects in the State's election laws. In his capacity as party leader, Governor Wilson has strenuously insisted that those promises should be kept. The passage of the so-called Geran bill is certainly a clear indication that the Governor's will is likely to prevail in the legislative councils of the State. No other Eastern State has thus far attempted changes so fundamental in its election system. Indeed the ultimate effect of this new law must be a transformation, not only of the electoral machinery of New Jersey, but of party methods and organization as well. We can summarize here only a few of the more conspicuous features of the law. One of these, which we believe is an innovation in State regulation of elections, is the requirement that election officers, after nomination by party



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MR. BRYAN AND GOVERNOR WILSON AT
BURLINGTON, N. J., LAST MONTH.

committees, shall be subject to a civil-service examination as to their qualifications. The law also extends the system of direct primaries to include candidates for Governor and for representatives in Congress, and provides for a popular referendum of preference on United States Senators, adopting the Oregon plan of requiring candidates for the Legislature to declare before election whether they will regard the result of this referendum as mandatory or not.

Party Methods

Party organization in New Jersey is directly affected by two measures that have already become familiar in several of the progressive States of the West. One of these provides for the choice of members of county and State committees at the primaries, while the other substitutes for the old form of State convention a new convention of each party for the purpose of formulating a party platform, this convention to consist of the candidates who have just been nominated at the primaries for Governor and for members of the Legislature, or the Governor himself in years when no governorship election is held, the holdover members of the State Senate, and members of the State committee. Wisconsin has been working under such a system as this for several years, but for the politicians of New Jersey it has a decided novelty. Upon the

adoption and application of these new methods in New Jersey politics, Governor Wilson has courageously staked his political future. Far-reaching as are the changes likely to be effected by this law, they are not as fundamental as the reforms that are sought in the "corrupt-practices" legislation that passed the New Jersey Senate and last month was under debate in the lower House. This proposed legislation is far more drastic than any laws of the kind thus far enacted by any State of the Union. It practically prohibits the expenditure of money on election day for any political purpose. Furthermore, it not only limits the amount of money a candidate may spend in his campaign, but prescribes the way he may spend it, as well as the way he cannot spend it, and designates the persons through whom all campaign money may be spent.

New Hampshire's Crawford Notch

Some of those who opposed the passage by Congress of the Appalachian and White Mountain Forest Reserve bill argued that federal legislation of this character would tend to weaken the State's initiative and make the States dependent upon the national Government for the maintenance of scenic parks within their boundaries. In one notable instance this prediction has proved to be unfounded. The Legislature of New Hampshire, with commendable promptness, has provided for the purchase by the State of the forests of the famous Crawford Notch in the heart of the White Mountains. If this action had not been taken those picturesque mountain slopes would soon have been denuded of timber, for lumbermen had already begun cutting trees, and were persuaded to desist only when the movement for the purchase of these forest areas by the State was started.

Progress in San Francisco

The Chicago mayoralty campaign which was described by a well-informed writer in our April number, afforded additional evidence of the growing popular interest in municipal government throughout this country. Developments in the same direction in the "new" city of San Francisco, within the past few months, are perhaps equally noteworthy, although they have attracted comparatively little attention in the East. We refer to the popular vote on amendments to the San Francisco charter, at a special election held on November 15 last, and to the ratification of these amendments, within the past few weeks, by the California Legislature. One of

these amendments establishes an easily workable system of initiative, referendum, and recall, the referendum being limited to such legislation as transfers vested rights. Another amendment establishes a simple system of nominating candidates for office, on the request of from ten to twenty sponsors, who certify to the fitness of their candidate. A majority is required to elect, and if such majority is not secured at the first election the names of the two highest candidates only go on the ballot for a second election. Similar provisions are made for a recall election, instead of permitting election by a plurality, as in the recall systems adopted by other cities. These provisions show very clearly a strong tendency for popular government. Municipal ownership of public utilities is also strongly suggested in the amendment which provides a system of granting franchises of street railways, by which the city may buy in the property if so desired. Another provision bars street-railway companies from monopolizing tunnels built at public expense. The prison doors have at last closed upon Ruef, who has been under prosecution for the past two years as one of the chief offenders in the notorious San Francisco graft cases. The city has evidently determined to set her house in order for the opening of the Panama Exposition.

Five Times
Mayor of
Chicago

At the Chicago municipal election of April 4, the Hon. Carter H. Harrison was elected Mayor for the fifth time by a plurality of about 17,000 votes. Mr. Harrison thus equals the record of his father, who was elected to the same office five times, but the term for which the son has just been elected will be four years instead of two, so that his total period of service, should he live to the expiration of his term, will have been twelve years instead of ten. This is truly a remarkable record, probably unequaled in the history of American municipalities. Mr. Harrison's opponent, Prof. Charles E. Merriam, of the University of Chicago, had made a most vigorous campaign, and his managers had counted, to a certain extent, on the support of those Democrats who had favored the nomination of ex-Mayor Edward F. Dunne. The defections of these Dunne Democrats from the Harrison ticket failed to materialize, while the undisguised hostility of many organization Republicans to the Merriam leadership was a significant element in the election. Mr. Harrison had the enthusiastic support of the Hearst news-



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MAYOR-ELECT CARTER H. HARRISON, OF CHICAGO

papers, while the *Tribune* and the *Record-Herald*, which had been not unfriendly to Mr. Harrison while he was in office, gave their support this year to Professor Merriam.

Needless
Deaths of
Factory
Workers

The sacrifice of 145 lives in a New York factory fire on March 25 was a costly reminder of the community's negligence. Nobody can say, after a study of the facts, that in this instance a single death was necessary or unpreventable. The stern, brutal truth is that nothing had been done to make the exit of employees in an emergency either safe or practicable. There had been no fire drills for the 500 women and girls of various nationalities who toiled daily at machines 100 feet or more above the street level,—beyond the reach of the firemen's ladders. The one fire-escape was in a court, and those on the ninth floor who attempted to use it were cut off by the flames from the eighth. Doors to the stairway



Photograph by the American Press Association, N. Y.

PARADE OF NEW YORK FACTORY WORKERS IN MEMORY OF THE VICTIMS OF THE
WASHINGTON PLACE FIRE OF MARCH 25

were locked, and in front of these doors, after the fire had been put out, were found the charred bodies of about 100 wretched victims of the flames, while more than forty had

the modern steel and stone structure of its class. The frightful loss of life resulted not from any fault in construction, but from a culpable indifference on the part of the authorities to the use that was made of the building and the risk of human life attendant on such use.



A CHICAGO SUGGESTION OF A WAY TO MAKE FACTORY BUILDINGS SAFE

(Employers could not get help in a building placarded as unsafe)

From the *Daily News* (Chicago)

leaped to a horrible death on the sidewalk or street pavement below. When it was all over the building itself remained little damaged, for it was of the "fireproof" type and as capable of resisting intense heat as are any of

The fact is that our methods of safeguarding life are still in a very crude stage. This is the more noticeable in a congested manufacturing center like New York, where large numbers of employees in some trades are herded together with only scant provision for personal safety. A few years ago a vigorous campaign was waged in New York against the "sweatshop" evil, with the result that the manufacture of many articles of clothing was brought under improved sanitary conditions. Large, substantial buildings were erected, in which entire floors, sometimes 100 feet square, were equipped with machinery for garment-making. These workrooms were far better than the old, unsanitary "sweat-shops" of twenty years ago, but one thing was overlooked. The new buildings were in the heart of New York, many of them only a stone's throw from Broadway, the great artery of metropolitan trade. The land on which they stood was valuable and to be profitable they had to be from ten to twenty stories high. A factory employing hundreds of women and young

Property
Versus
Human Life

girls, at such an elevation, faces peculiar problems as regards the safety of employees. The materials handled in the garment trades are of a highly combustible nature, and the male workers have been permitted in many instances to smoke cigarettes on the premises. A fire like that of March 25 can hardly be looked upon as a visitation of Providence.

*What
Can Be
Done?*

After a fatal factory fire in Newark last January, Chief Croker of the New York Fire Department, had given warning of the danger. There is no reason why fire drills should not have been held in all factories employing any considerable number of girls. Such drills are required in the public schools of the city and are recognized as necessary measures to forestall panic. Yet in the cloak- and suit-makers' trade, out of over 1200 shops in New York, it was found in the course of a recent investigation that only one maintained a fire drill. Any building occupied in whole or in part by a factory should be subject to a special form of inspection and the municipal authority over such buildings should be so concentrated that a single official can be held responsible for the life-saving equipment of the building. It is not enough to put laws on the statute-books, but the enforcement of the laws must be entrusted to some officer with undivided authority, who can be held accountable to the community. Some of Chief Croker's

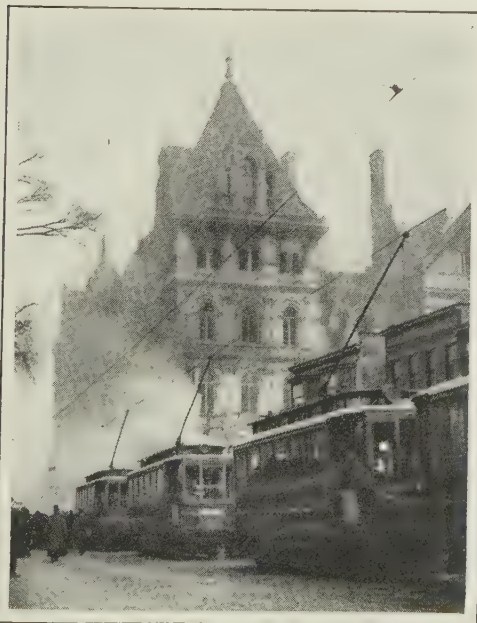


Photograph by Fach, N. Y.
CHIEF CROKER, OF THE NEW YORK FIRE DEPARTMENT
(Who has recently resigned after a service of twenty-seven years)

suggestions for fire prevention are set forth in an article from which we quote on page 626 of this number.

*Loss of
a Valuable
Library*

The destruction by fire of the New York State Library in the capitol at Albany on the morning of March 29 was another sacrifice to official negligence and public indifference. This was a priceless collection of books and manuscripts,—one of the four or five most valuable libraries in the country, in some departments unexcelled. The State should never have placed such a collection in peril of destruction. The fact that the capitol building itself,—a \$25,000,000 monument to the extravagance, and worse, of a whole generation in New York politics,—remains intact, is small consolation for the loss of a literary heritage that can never be replaced. And a hand extinguisher, or even a bucket of water, within reach when the fire broke out, would have saved it all! The ancient Dutch archives and other manuscript treasures can never be duplicated, but the State's generosity will doubtless provide, in time, a new library that may serve to remind the people in some degree of the treasures that have been lost. The new State Library is to be housed in a building that has been in course of construction for several years and would have been occupied by the old library before the date of the fire, but for unforeseen delays in the completion of the builder's contract.



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THE FIRE AT THE NEW YORK STATE CAPITOL, ALBANY,
WHICH DESTROYED THE STATE LIBRARY

*A Great
Expansion
in Exports*

In 1909 this REVIEW was reporting striking reversals of the usual relations between our export and import trade. The sudden falling off of our favorable balance with foreign countries,—this “favorable balance” being the excess of exports over imports,—was considered by many observers an ominous matter, and a commentary frequently heard was that the loss of the usual great balance in our favor was to be a permanent loss, due fundamentally to the fact that we were using our foodstuffs at home, leaving no considerable part of them to be sold abroad. The history of trade balances shows, however, as we pointed out two years ago, very curiously sudden changes. Such a change has come within the past eight months. In that period our exports have increased from \$1,157,000,000 in 1908-9 to \$1,433,000,000 in 1910-11. An examination of the items which go to make up this total shows that the contention of the prophets of a disappearing export balance was partly correct, in that this great expansion of our sales to foreigners has come in spite of a continuing tendency toward smaller exports of foodstuffs. While the recent lower prices of such commodities in this country have brought some small increase in sales of foodstuffs abroad, the year, as a whole, shows that it is in line with the four or five past years in the movement toward the consumption of so much of our grain and meat at home that there is a constantly decreasing balance for sale in Europe. The magnificent expansion of the export trade is due, then, entirely to the sale of manufactured and partly manufactured articles, which account this year for no less than \$150,000,000 of the increase over 1909.

*The Crop
Promises
for 1911*

During the past weeks the investment markets and the industrial world have been chiefly anxious concerning two developments of the future,—first, the Supreme Court decisions in the cases of the American Tobacco Company and the Standard Oil Company, and second, the progress of the crops to be harvested in 1911. Doubtless the discussions of the coming Supreme Court decisions have been overdone and their actual importance exaggerated as affecting the present plans of industrial concerns. The strength of the harvest factor, in its bearing on the dull state of investment and industry, has, on the other hand, probably been underestimated. The month of April brings the first seasonal news of value as to the crop promise. The govern-

ment report of last month showed a very satisfactory condition of winter wheat, the percentage being 83.3, as against 80.8 on April 1, 1910 and an average condition percentage of 86.9 for the past ten years. Two facts make this showing better than a first glance would indicate: the acreage planted in winter wheat this year has been enormous,—a million acres more than last year's large planting; and the condition this April shows an improving tendency from the earlier winter condition, as against a normal decline from December to April. The price of the wheat staple has been steadily declining in response to the news of the large crop promise which was aided by the record stocks of wheat carried over from last year in both Europe and America. Unofficial statements from the captains of the great granger railroads supplement the Government's report in indicating a busy and productive year for the farmers of the Middle West and Northwest.

*Poor Results of
the Bank Guar-
antee Plan*

Reports of the banking situation in Oklahoma indicate that the “guarantee” plan that has been followed in that State since February, 1908, is meeting with many of the troubles its critics predicted. Under the law the State banks and trust companies contribute to the guarantee fund 1 per cent. of their average deposits, new institutions adding to the fund 3 per cent. of their capital stock. When a bank or trust company fails, the depositors are immediately paid from this fund, the State then having a first lien on the assets of the insolvent corporation. A great increase in the number of State banks came after the plan was put into operation. It is said that in one village of 150 inhabitants two banks were started, with aggregate deposits of only \$15,000. Irresponsible promoters rushed into the banking business, and, too, the national banks themselves were forced in many instances to become State institutions by the advantage the latter held in bidding for deposits. But the cost of the guarantee system has been found too burdensome, chiefly owing to the assessments which, by the law, had to be made when the guarantee fund was drawn too low. Now the rush is the other way. Not only are the former national banks, which had, under pressure of the guarantee plan, become State institutions, reincorporating under the Federal law, but many original State banks are doing the same thing. The process recalls the experiences of three other States, New York, Vermont and Michigan, over three-quarters of a century ago.



THE NEW AMBASSADOR TO RUSSIA

(Hon. Curtis Guild, Jr., ex-Governor of Massachusetts, who has been appointed by President Taft to succeed Mr. Rockhill at St. Petersburg)

German
Approval
of Dr. Hill

When, on April 14, Dr. David Jayne Hill's resignation as American Ambassador to Germany was made public, there was a good deal of mild surprise reflected in the European press. Without exception, the German journals whose comments on the subject have been reported, highly commend Dr. Hill's services to his country and his eminent acceptability to the government of Kaiser Wilhelm. At the German capital Ambassador Hill has borne himself with conspicuous tact and dignity on all occasions. The liberal and progressive journal, the *Tageblatt*, refers to him as "one of the most brilliant and solid personalities in American diplomacy," while the *Kreuz-Zeitung*, the organ of the conservatives, says: "His departure will be a distinct loss to Germany, especially the intellectual world which he notably adorned." This journal adds that the cause of German-American relations "demands that the real reasons for his sudden retirement be publicly and promptly cleared up." Other important diplomatic changes recorded last month were the appointment, to succeed Oscar Straus as Ambassador at Constantinople, of Mr. Rockhill, who is to be transferred from St. Petersburg. The Russian ambassadorship is to be

filled by a new man, ex-Governor Curtis Guild, of Massachusetts, whose appointment was announced on April 12.

Progress of
Reciprocity at
Ottawa

The decision of the Democratic caucus in the House of Representatives, on April 12, to take up Canadian reciprocity as one of the first items on its program, at once greatly improved the position of the reciprocity agreement in the Canadian Parliament. The opposition at Ottawa, which has been aggressively against reciprocity from the first, had confidently expected that the Democrats at Washington would delay ratification of the agreement until they had carried through the greater part of their legislative program, or that they would combine the consideration of the reciprocity agreement with a modification of the wool schedule or some other contemplated tariff changes. The plan of the Ways and Means Committee to push forward a reciprocity agreement, which is in all except phraseology identical with the bill introduced on January 26 by Representative McCall, simplified the situation for the Canadian Government. It had the effect of curtailing the debate at Ottawa, which had already been long protracted. The Dominion Parliament adjourned on April 12 for the Easter recess. It was confidently expected by Premier Laurier that soon after its reassembling, on April 19, Parliament would ratify the agreement. The party tactics of the Democrats in introducing at the same time as the reciprocity agreement, the so-called "free list" bill, to which we have already alluded, by which they hoped to satisfy the farmer opponents of a freer trade with the Dominion, have been met on the other side of the line by the announcement that, after the reciprocity agreement has been concluded, it "will probably be necessary to make some changes in the Canadian tariff to test the advantage of the British preferential rates." This will be done to placate the Dominion opponents of the measure now under such heated discussion.

Our Course in
the Mexican
"War"

Not for more than half a century have the relations between the United States and Mexico been so strained as they became during the past month, when the injuries to American citizens and property in Douglas, Arizona, as the result of the two battles of Agua Prieta, forced the Senate to appoint a committee to investigate conditions on the border. The War Department bulletins, based on reports from Colonel Shunk, in command of the

United States cavalry at Douglas, were reported to President Taft, and the substance of them communicated to the Senate. On April 17 Senator Stone, of Missouri, a prominent Democratic member of the Committee on Foreign Relations, introduced a resolution directing that an investigating committee be appointed, because

conditions of turbulence and disorder prevail in the Republic across the Rio Grande, the life of American citizens and the property of Americans are in jeopardy from irresponsible persons roving about Mexico; work on the dam in the Imperial Valley has been retarded, and Americans on this side of the boundary have been killed and wounded by flying bullets.

Two resolutions substantially the same as Senator Stone's were introduced in the House. President Taft let it be known that he would not move a single soldier across the boundary unless authorized to do so by Congress.

The President Warns Mexico

Twice, early last month, President Taft, through the State Department, made representations to the Mexican Government to the effect that affairs like those at Douglas and Agua Prieta, involving injury to American life and property, must not be repeated. At the same time formal warnings were issued to the Federal and insurrecto commanders that they would be held to a strict observance of the neutrality laws. The President asked for immediate assurances that there be no more fighting that might endanger Americans in the border towns. Information was also requested as to what measures the Federal authorities had already taken to prevent further combats of this kind. On April 18 President Diaz informed Ambassador Wilson that Mexico would observe "a distinct restrictive policy hereafter for the zone of hostilities along the international border." The official reply of the Mexican Government to President Taft's formal note was received at the State Department two days later. From the summary given out at that time it was seen that, while it was friendly in form and substance, the reply laid at the door of American citizens much of the responsibility for the injuries complained of by the President. Of course, it is impossible for fighting to go on close to a boundary line such as divides Texas, New Mexico and Arizona from Mexico, without some damage to life and property on the American side. It may be, as has been claimed, that the insurrectos purposely take positions which force the Federal troops, in attacking

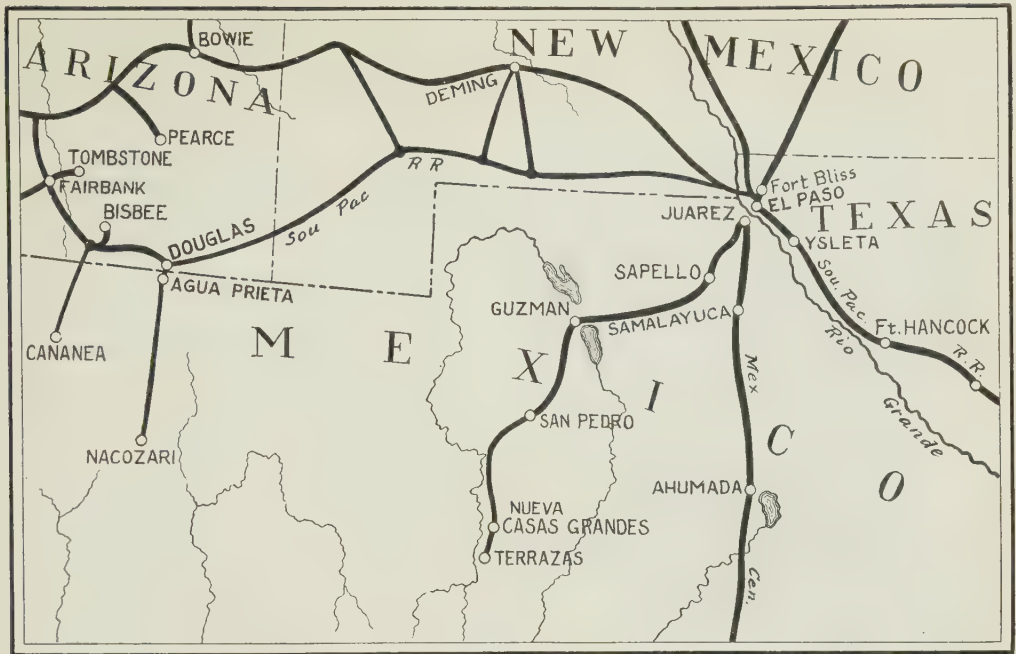
them, to fire into American territory. It is undoubtedly true that Americans are not keeping away from the line in order to be safe. Nevertheless, the responsibility lies with the central authorities at Mexico City, and they must be held strictly accountable for all damage done to American interests by their own or the insurgent troops.

Is the Insurrection Now a "War"?

By the middle of last month actual civil war was being waged in more than one part of the country. The insurrection was gaining ground daily. Only one line of railway communication was open between Mexico and the north, and there was more or less vague talk of a recognition of the belligerent rights of the revolutionists by the United States Government, which would have seemed preposterous a month before. A few more engagements like those at Agua Prieta, with further injury to American life and property, would undoubtedly convince the people of this country that the time had come to demand that the Mexican Government give some recognition to the claims of the disaffected, and if unable to subdue them or appease them by further concessions than those already made, that the differences be submitted to some impartial arbitrator.

Peace Conferences

Last month there were several proposals for peace conferences between Gen. Francisco Madero, "Provisional President" and commander in chief of the insurgent forces, and agents of the central government. There were also conferences in Washington between the Mexican Minister and Dr. Vasquez Gomez, the Maderist representative in this country. None of these, however, appears to have resulted in any substantial progress toward peace. It was reported on April 18 that Señor de la Barra, Minister of Foreign Affairs, had consented to an armistice during which a peace conference would be held. The insurrectos, instead of being appeased by the government concessions, have apparently regarded these as a sign of weakness on the part of their opponents, and a promise of their own ultimate success. For thirty years, says Señor Madero, the government at Mexico City has been promising. "The Mexican people now want some performance." The revolutionists, Madero insists, will not lay down their arms until last year's elections are declared null and void, and new ones ordered with a free ballot guaranteed. The proposed land-reform project, further, "is a good one but in bad hands."



SCENE OF THE MEXICAN "WAR" DURING THE PAST FEW WEEKS

(Showing El Paso and Juarez and Douglas and Agua Prieta, where important engagements took place)

*Battle of
Agua Prieta*

The most serious engagements of the insurrection, approaching real battles, occurred on April 13 and 17, between the Federal and insurrectionary forces, numbering each about a thousand men, at Agua Prieta, a small mining town immediately south of the Arizona state line. Agua Prieta is directly across the boundary from Douglas, Arizona, the two forming practically one urban center. It is a port of entry on the El Paso & Southwestern Railway. On April 13 the insurgents captured the town after some severe fighting. Five days later the Federal army attempted to retake it, and a fierce battle ensued, lasting from early morning until sundown. The Federals used machine guns, but the insurrecto cavalry and sharpshooters soon disabled the gunners on the national side, and finally repulsed them. Later, however, the insurgents evacuated the town and the Federals reoccupied it. During the fighting bullets constantly fell in Douglas and some of the steel missiles from the Federal machine guns badly damaged buildings in the center of the town, including the United States custom house. Six persons were wounded while walking in the streets. The American cavalry, under command of Colonel Shunk, patrolled the line, discharging with vigor, yet justice and propriety, their extremely delicate task of giving the utmost

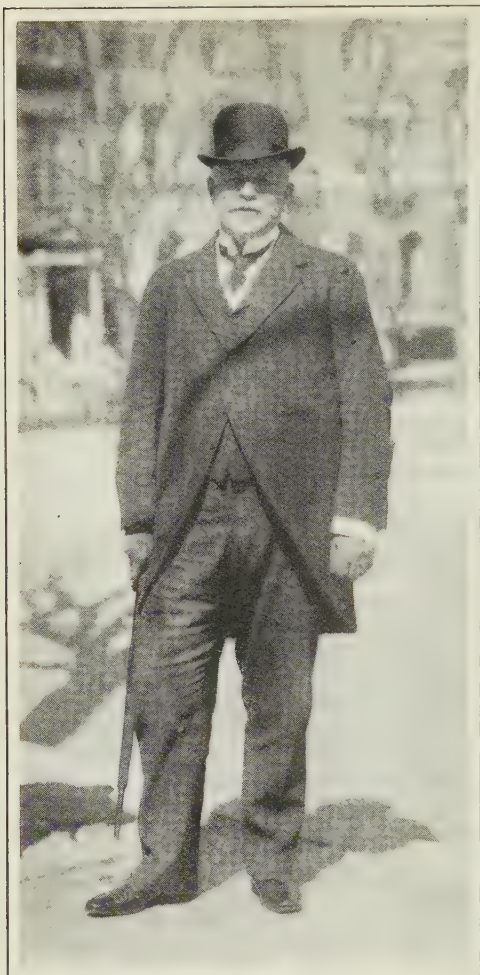
protection possible to American life and property, and at the same time preventing the adventurous Arizonians, all eager for a fight, from crossing the border and casting in their lot with the insurgents.

*Change of
Cabinet
in Mexico*

In commenting, last month, upon the strength and influence of Señor Limantour, the Mexican Minister of Finance, we noted the probability that, upon his return to Mexico City, there would be important changes in the cabinet. Within forty-eight hours after the arrival of the Finance Minister at the capital, on March 24, the entire cabinet of President Diaz resigned. It is not to be assumed that the ministry gave up from a spirit of opposition to Diaz, but upon some intimation from him that the situation throughout the nation required them to make the sacrifice. There had long been much popular opposition to some of the ministers, particularly to Vice-President Corral, who, as Minister of the Interior, was also a member of the cabinet. Señor Corral sailed for Europe early in April.

*Diaz's
New
Ministers*

The retiring ministry was made up as follows: Interior (and Vice-President of the Republic), Ramon Corral; Foreign Affairs, Enrique Creel; Finance and Public Credit, José Yves



THE NEW MEXICAN AMBASSADOR TO THE
UNITED STATES

(Señor Manuel de Zamacona y Inclán, who has been appointed to succeed Don Francisco de la Barra as Mexican Ambassador at Washington)

Limantour; Justice, Justo Fernandez; Public Institutions and Fine Arts, Justo Sierra; Promotion, Olegario Molina; Communications and Public Works, Leandro Fernandez; War and Marine, Gonzalez Cosio. President Diaz refused to accept the resignations of Señores Limantour and Cosio. In the new cabinet Francisco de la Barra, for the past two years Mexican Ambassador to the United States, is Minister of Foreign Affairs and official Premier. Demetrio Sodi has become Minister of Justice; Manuel Marroquin y Rivera, Minister of Promotion; Vera Estanol, Minister of Public Instruction; and Noberto Dominguez, Minister of Communications. Señor de la Barra has been succeeded at Washington by Dr. Manuel de Zamacona

y Inclán, formerly Mexican financial agent at London. Dr. Zamacona's father was Minister to the United States in the early seventies of the past century. The new Ambassador is an independent in politics, with a leaning, it is reported, toward the position taken by the insurrectos. He has been Postmaster General and Treasurer of the Republic.

His Message to Congress When the Mexican Congress opened on April 2 President Diaz announced that, having accomplished the first step in his reform program by making important changes in the cabinet, he would outline the measures which he regarded as necessary for "the administrative regeneration of the Federal and State governments." The aged President stood unassisted for more than two hours, and read in a firm voice one of the longest messages ever addressed to a Mexican Congress. He declared himself in favor of legislation forbidding the reelection of a President and also for rotation in the offices of cabinet members and State governors. He announced his firm intention of remedying deficiencies complained of in local administration, of amending the election laws and of reforming the federal judiciary. He also pledged himself to bring about the division of the large country estates "on terms of equality to the owners and to those who desire to purchase small parcels of lands and place them under cultivation."

As to American "Intervention" After paying high tribute to the loyalty and valor of Mexican soldiers, General Diaz referred to the filibustering from American territory and stated that the Mexican Government had repeatedly called attention of the Government of the United States to these acts. "That Government," said he, "acting by virtue of its laws of neutrality, at once adopted such measures as it deemed adequate, which the Government of Mexico recognizes and appreciates." As to the "unusual concentration" of American forces near the border, General Diaz referred to the message from President Taft assuring Mexico that this concentration meant no unfriendly act. The insurrection itself President Diaz referred to as largely brigandage, which, he insisted, "cannot but provoke the utmost indignation throughout the country." The message virtually complied with all the terms of compromise asked by the insurrecto leaders except the general amnesty. The government announced that this would be proclaimed within a few hours after the insurrectos laid down their arms.

There is no reason to doubt that within the next few weeks all the measures proposed by President Diaz will be enacted into law by Congress, and the Mexican Government will have changed from a one-man power to a government of the people themselves. The insurrectos still insist that nothing short of the resignation of Diaz himself will satisfy them. It was reported a number of times last month that the aged President had determined to resign, but not until the present rebellion against the government had been subdued.

A sensational newspaper story was published last month to the effect that it was the discovery of a secret treaty between Japan and the Diaz government that led to President Taft's action in mobilizing 20,000 American troops in Texas. The government at Tokyo, according to this story, had asked President Diaz for a coaling station on the coast of Lower California. The Mexican President, realizing the extent to which the Japanese emigration to his country has increased during recent years, and knowing that Japanese agents had secretly mapped the western coast of Mexico, hesitated. At this point the story related how Ambassador Wilson secured a copy of a secret agreement which Diaz was about to make, had it photographed, and brought it posthaste to Washington, where it was submitted to the President and the Cabinet. Finally, said the story, the United States, once in possession of the information from Ambassador Wilson, intimated that Japan must not be permitted to secure any foothold on Mexican territory. Thereupon Diaz informed Japan that he did not care to "lease any part of the country to a foreign power." Then came the movement of the United States troops to the border.

Official Denials

Immediate and categorical denials of the truth of this story were made by the Japanese Ambassador at Washington and the Japanese Minister at Mexico City. Secretary Knox and other government officials, including all the members of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, also denied that the alleged Japanese treaty had anything to do with the movement of American troops. It is a matter of record, however, that Japanese colonists have received grants of tracts for cotton and corn raising in several of the Pacific states of Mexico. It is also a fact that one of the subsidized Japanese steamship lines has requested from the Mexican Govern-

ment coaling privileges at one of the Pacific coast ports. As yet, we are told, no answer whatsoever to this latter request has been made by the Mexican Government. On the occasion of the exchange of ratifications of the American-Japanese commercial treaty, on April 4, the Emperor of Japan and President Taft took occasion to express sentiments of the utmost cordiality of one country to the other. On later occasions Ambassador O'Brien and the Japanese Foreign Minister, Count Komura, indirectly and in diplomatic language, denounced what the Japanese Foreign Minister characterized as "the pernicious criminal activity of certain individuals and interests to prejudice the relations between America and Japan."

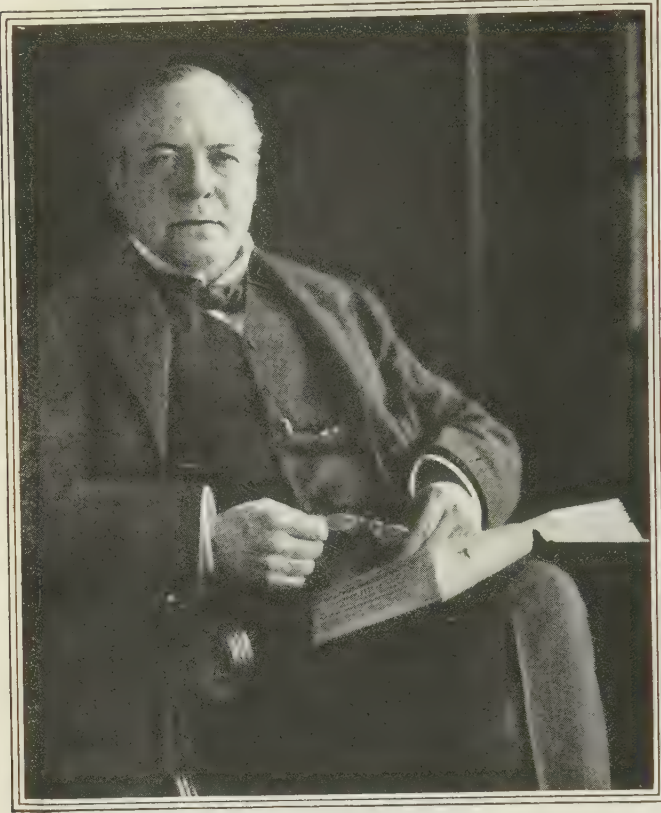
Despite those German experts who find our troops in Texas "slipshod, useless and badly officered," and the critics at home who point to some slight disorder, last month, on the part of a negro regiment at San Antonio, as an evidence of lack of discipline or the prevalence of unfortunate race feeling, the President and the War Department have expressed themselves as more than satisfied with the



UNCLE SAM AND MEXICO—FROM A SOUTH AMERICAN POINT OF VIEW

UNCLE SAM (speaking through the window to the Mexican Federals and Insurrectos): "Don't let me interrupt you. I am just taking a disinterested, friendly interest in what you are doing."

From *Caras y Caretas* (Buenos Aires)



THE NEW LIBERAL LEADER IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS
(British Secretary of War Haldane, who has just been made a Viscount)

behavior of the troops and the results of the experience already obtained. The soldier boys have conducted themselves well. They have learned a great deal from actual service. They have been well taken care of and are in excellent spirits. Heretofore, in army maneuvers in this country, there have been no units larger than a regiment. The war game now being played in Texas has provided an opportunity for concentrating and organizing larger fighting units. For the first time, says General Wood in one of his reports to President Taft, "we have a division fully equipped, armed and supplied, the different arms of the service acting together according to plans thoroughly mapped out. . . . The success with which we are handling these men is an object lesson calculated to inspire the confidence of the country in the American soldier."

*Progress of
the
Veto Bill*

The Liberal veto bill restricting the powers of the House of Lords is in the committee stage in the Commons. The battle over it promises to be long and hard. Amendments to the num-

ber of 957, and covering more than 74 printed pages, have been proposed. Each of these will be brought up for discussion. Most of them will have been considered before this magazine reaches its readers. None of them have any hope of passing, since the ministry has said its last word and given this proposition its final form. The opposition has been filibustering, to use an American congressional term for several weeks. On April 7, Premier Asquith announced that the government expected to put the measure through before the middle of the present month. All the proposals of the minority, led by Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons, and by his uncle, Lord Balfour of Burleigh, and Lord Lansdowne in the Upper House, are inadmissible in the eyes of the Liberals because they contemplate a sweeping reform of the peers. Furthermore, they would leave the Upper House almost as certainly Conservative as it is now, and much stronger because mod-

*Parliamentary
Tactics*

The Lords themselves do not seem to be able to agree on any one definite plan. The suggestion of Lord Lansdowne for reorganization of the house, and that of Lord Balfour for a referendum on every measure upon which the two houses disagree, have failed to secure a majority support of the peers themselves. The latest move of the opposition is a resolution presented by Lord Lansdowne praying the King to consent to the introduction of a bill in the House of Commons for the reform of the House of Lords, "limiting the prerogatives of the crown in so far as they relate to the creation of peerages." This was intended to checkmate the government by depriving it of the power to create enough new peers to carry through the veto bill. Replying for the

government to this proposition, Lord Morley stated that the ministry would offer no opposition to the Lansdowne proposal. "But," he went on to say, "in assenting to this proposal the government does not pledge itself in any way in regard to any future advice it may offer the sovereign when the time comes." The position of the Liberals in the Upper House has been much strengthened recently by the elevation of Mr. Haldane, Secretary of War, to the peerage. He now becomes Viscount Haldane of Cloan. The new Peer has always been a Liberal and is recognized as one of the strongest men in the present government.

*The German
Chancellor on
Arbitration*

We referred last month to the widespread discussion in Great Britain and on the continent over Sir Edward Grey's remarks in the House of Commons with reference to President Taft's unlimited arbitration suggestions. Sir Edward heartily concurred in Mr. Taft's general proposition that it would be a great gain for international peace if "we [the United States] can negotiate and put through a positive agreement with some other nation to abide by the adjudication of an international arbitral court in every issue which cannot be settled by negotiations, no matter what it involves, whether honor, territory or money." The arbitration treaty between Great Britain and the United States, which the President had particularly in mind when he spoke, is now being drafted by Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce. According to the present outlook, it will be submitted to the Senate for ratification about the middle of the present month. On the continent a great deal of interest and discussion has been aroused. France, which is about to enter into negotiations with the United States for an arbitration treaty, is enthusiastic for the principle. The official German attitude was set forth in a declaration in the Reichstag by Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, on March 30. While in general approving of the principle of arbitration, the Chancellor declared that if this principle is expected to lead to general disarmament, Germany cannot favor it. "Disarmament is a dream, an insoluble problem so long as men are men." He continued:

If any nation feels that it is unable longer to spend certain sums for defensive purposes it will inevitably drop to the second rank. There will always be a stronger one ready to take its place. We Germans in our exposed situation cannot shut our eyes to this dire reality, only so far as we can maintain peace. . . . The nations, including Ger-

many, have been talking disarmament since the first Hague conference, but neither in Germany nor elsewhere has a practical plan been proposed. Great Britain wishes the limitation of armaments, but simultaneously wants a superior or equal fleet. Any conference on this subject is bound to be fruitless. No standard for a limitation can be found, and any conceivable proposal would be shattered on the question of control.

*A German
Concession
to England*

Despite the somewhat warlike tone of the Chancellor's address, there was one paragraph at the end which English statesmen welcome as most important. Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg said:

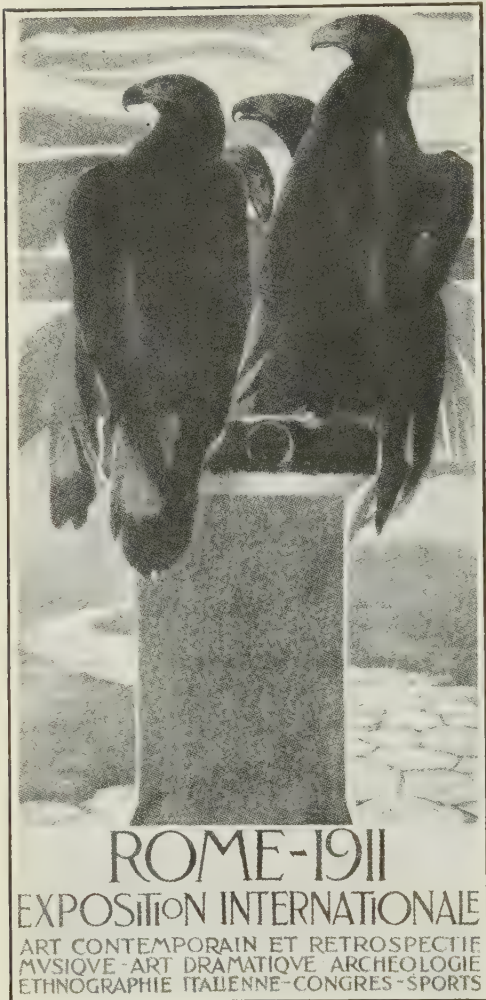
The English Minister [Sir Edward Grey] gave expression to the idea that an exchange of information between England and Germany with regard to their shipbuilding might give security against surprises and strengthen in both countries the conviction that neither desires secretly to over-trump the other. By this exchange of information the other countries also would be informed with regard to the relative position of England to Germany, and that, it is said, would serve the general interests of peace. We have been able to fall in with this idea all the sooner as our navy construction program lies open, as it has always done, to all the world. We have, therefore, declared our readiness to come to an agreement with England about this matter, in the hope that by these means the expected calming of public opinion in England will set in.

This means, if it means anything, that the naval attachés of both England and Germany



"DISARMAGEDDON"

London *Punch's* happy presentation of the agreement between President Taft and Sir Edward Grey on the subject of unlimited arbitration



THE POSTER OF THE EXHIBITION AT ROME,
COMMEMORATING THE SEMI-CENTENNIAL OF
ITALIAN UNITY

will have practically free entrance to each others' dockyards, so that each will be kept in touch with what the other is doing. There may, therefore, be an end of the perpetual alarms based on inaccurate information that have, during the past few years, made such mischief in both countries. The German Chancellor had to announce this to the Reichstag, but was very much afraid that if he did so, his own jingoes would turn against him. He, therefore, wrapped it up in a discourse which attacked arbitration and disarmament, and under cover of this demonstration, he smuggled in his announcement. Despite this the German jingoes are growling at the concession. But there has been a real gain to the cause of world peace.

*Fifty Years
of
United Italy*

The Kingdom of Italy celebrates her jubilee as a united nation by an exposition showing her progress in the fine arts, a cabinet crisis, and the spectacular trial in a court of law of one of the most notorious criminal organizations in human history. On March 27, at midnight, a gun fired from the Janiculum Hill inaugurated the ceremonies in celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of Rome as the capital of a united Italian peninsula. Elaborate ceremonies marked the opening, including the presentation to the nation of busts of the four creators of modern Italy: Victor Emmanuel, Cavour, Mazzini and Garibaldi. The celebrations continued throughout the greater part of last month. Official representatives of most of the great powers of Europe were in attendance. It was hoped that Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and Kaiser Franz Joseph of Austria-Hungary would accept the invitation of King Victor Emmanuel to be present in Rome, when he, their partner in the Triple Alliance, commemorated the Italian semi-centennial. But neither of his brother monarchs attended, although they sent cordial messages. Their absence was undoubtedly due to the attitude of the Vatican, which cannot forget nor forgive the loss of its temporal power. Fifty years ago, when this country was in the throes of civil war to maintain a union threatened with dismemberment, Italy was combining all her scattered forces to cement a union which has since grown in strength and prosperity.

*Giolitti
Premier
Again*

After remaining out of politics for two years, Signor Giovanni Giolitti once more becomes Premier of Italy. The ministries of Luzzatti and Sonino, which have filled in the period since Giolitti's last premiership, have been recognized as temporary expedients. Giolitti is undoubtedly the strongest political leader in Italy at present. Both Luzatti and Sonino fell because of a combination of domestic and foreign problems. Signor Luzatti endeavored to reform the Italian senate, a reactionary body chosen by methods now recognized as out of date. A committee of investigation last year reported in favor of many changes, but the senate refused to accept these recommendations, and there is no method at present by which the lower house in Italy can overrule the upper. The condition of the railway workers throughout the Kingdom was another problem which confronted and effectively baffled the ex-Premier. Railway workers in Italy are badly paid, and they



TRYING THE CAMORRA, ITALY'S NOTORIOUS CRIMINAL ORGANIZATION

(A scene at the famous trial of Erricone Alfano for murder, at Viterbo, Italy. The figure to the left in clerical robes is the priest, Father Vitozzi, accused of being in the pay of the Camorra. The large cage in the center is used alternately for holding witnesses and prisoners. The smaller cage to the right is for the informer, Gennaro Abbatemaggio)

have been striking and generally interfering with the transportation business for several years. They are not satisfied with the appropriation for increased salaries made by the government (Italian railways are state-owned) and acts of disorder and sabotage are being reported frequently from various parts of the country.

*His
Pressing
Problems*

The issue upon which the Luzatti cabinet actually fell was vaguely known as electoral reform. Failing to secure a vote of confidence, Signor Luzatti and his Ministers resigned, and, on March 29, Signor Giolitti formed a new ministry, himself taking the portfolio of the interior. The new Premier is a man of vigor and patriotism. His declaration of policies in the Chamber, on April 8, secured the support of all parties, including the Socialists. The acceptance of the Premiership by Giolitti, with reliance mainly on the Radical groups in the Parliament for his working majority, is said to be due almost entirely to the persuasions

of King Victor Emmanuel. Giolitti might have made a deal with the moderate and some of the conservative elements of the Chamber which would have carried him along for some time. But apparently the King thought this would be opposing the real tendencies of the country. He therefore sent for Bissolati, the Socialist deputy, a man of the Briand type of evolutionary rather than revolutionary socialism, and had a long conference with him. Bissolati is said to have laid down several demands as conditions of Socialist support for the new ministry. Universal suffrage and restriction of army and navy expenses were leading points, and these Giolitti accepted, as his inaugural statement to Parliament indicates. A number of the former ministers have been induced to retain their positions, chief among them being the Marquis di San Giuliano, who is the head of the foreign affairs department. In her international relations Italy of late years has been exhibiting a restlessness that seems to presage her breaking, in the not far distant

future, from the Triple Alliance, and casting in her lot with France. Austro-Italian relations have been strained for many years. The Kingdom is almost at the point of an open rupture with Turkey over commercial questions centering in Tripoli; and German commercial policies are gradually elbowing her out of the Balkans.

*Trying
the
Camorra*

When, two years ago, Petrosino, the American-Italian detective, while on duty in Italy, was murdered by agents of the Camorra, the attention of the Western world was drawn anew to this remarkable criminal organization, which has supplied the bravos, the banditti, the white slavers, the burglars, and the general assassins of Italy for more than a century. The Camorra, a secret society mainly composed of the poor criminal classes banded together to evade and defy the law, originally confined its energies to extortion, blackmail and smuggling. Later it added murder to its list. Its members are held together by stern and severe discipline and rigidly enforced secrecy. Ten years ago the Italian Government first began to actively interfere with the work of the Camorra, which had by that time assumed the proportions and activities of a political party, with the Black Hand and the Mafia as its "foreign affiliations." Owing to the rigid discipline and devotion of the Camorristas their apprehension has always been difficult. During the past month, however, there has been going on at Viterbo, an ancient little town northeast of Rome; a trial which seems likely to result in the speedy extinction of this notorious band of organized lawbreakers.

*Features
of the
Trial*

With the details of the accusation against Erricone Alfano, the leader of the Camorra, for murder, we are not particularly concerned. More than four years of patient work on the part of the police and the military gendarmerie, known in Italy as the Carabinieri, resulted in the apprehension of the alleged leaders of the Camorra. Five have either died in prison, been released or escaped. The other thirty-six are now on trial. Seven hundred witnesses have been called during the case, which is expected to last at least a year. The prominent figures of the trial are this Alfano, Gennaro Abbateggio, the informer who turned state's evidence, and the priest Vitozzi, charged with being in the pay of the Camorra. The proceedings so far have emphasized the difference between Italian judicial methods and

those of the rest of the world. The progress of the trial is recognized by the European press generally as a real educating influence for the nation, just as (to quote the *Paris Temps*) "in another way the Dreyfus affair educated France." In the latter case "it was the archaic laws and race prejudice nourished by them that needed correction. Here it is the traditions of a people finding archaic expression because of laxity of law and order." For the first time, says the *Tribuna* of Rome, "the real heroes and darlings of the people are the Reali Carabinieri. . . . It looks as though the trial would mean the regeneration of Southern Italy."

*Premier
Stolypin
Resigns*

When on March 20 it was announced that Premier Stolypin of Russia had resigned, after being for four years at the head of the Czar's government, the Western world was in doubt as to whether to regard his fall as an indication of the temporary triumph of the reactionists or a weakness on the part of Czar Nicholas in favor of more liberal policies. Three days later, Dr. Stolypin was persuaded to withdraw his resignation and again assume the duties of Premier. The principal reason for his resignation, we were told, was the rejection by the Council of the Empire of his bill for the introduction of the so-called Zemstvo system of government into the western provinces of the empire. It is not easy at this distance to understand the exact significance of the legislative measures introduced by the Government of Russia. At first glance, it might have been assumed that Premier Stolypin's bill was an attempt to improve the condition of the people in the western provinces by giving them the right to govern themselves in purely local matters through popularly elected district and provincial assemblies. From this point of view, the defeat of this measure in the Upper House of the Russian parliament would be regarded as a triumph of the reactionaries over a liberal premier. As a matter of fact, Stolypin is not a liberal in any true sense. His measure to establish Zemstvos in the western provinces was designed primarily to curtail the power of the Poles in that part of the empire. The proposed Zemstvo election law would decrease the number of Polish representatives in the Upper House (the Council of the Empire) by so apportioning the right of franchise among the different classes of the population as to give the dominant political power, not to the most numerous or to the most intelligent classes, but to a small group of Russian

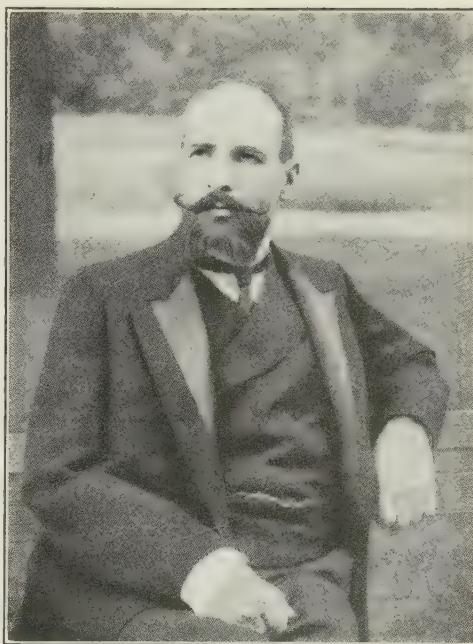
landed proprietors, the class that would most readily support the government's policies of Russification and subjection of the peasants.

*But Re-
considers*

Stolypin reconsidered his resignation on the one condition that the Zemstvo bill be enacted into law over the rejection of the Council. Since the fundamental laws of the empire give the monarch power to promulgate legislation only when parliament is not in session, the Czar prorogued both houses for three days, and then promulgated the Zemstvo bill by imperial ukase as an "emergency" measure. This autocratic action raised a storm of indignation and protest. Upon the reconvening of the House, the action of the Czar was approved by only the two-thirds majority necessary. One more adverse vote would have actually compelled the monarch to reconsider the measure. Premier Stolypin was openly attacked, and the President of the Duma, Alexander Guchkov, resigned. His successor, Dr. Rodziano, is a partisan of Stolypin, but a man of courage and independence. An incidental result of this encounter between reaction and constitutionalism has been the virtual effacement of those two violent advocates of despotism and the old order generally, General Trepov (brother of the late Governor of Moscow) and P. N. Durnovo, the real leader of the avowed reactionaries. In order to get Stolypin to re-assume the duties of Premier, Czar Nicholas had to plainly agree "not to further consult or hearken to" either Trepov or Durnovo.

*Is Reaction
Losing Ground
in Russia?*

In Russia's general internal conditions there are signs of better things. The long apathy following the unsuccessful attempt, a few years ago, to overthrow despotic rule and introduce modern governmental methods into the Empire seem, at last, to be passing away. Just as in foreign affairs, the Russian people are again assuming an active, aggressive attitude, threatening China in Western Manchuria and opposing Turkey's policies in Persia, so there are signs of an awakening with regard to domestic problems. The press, conservative as well as liberal, is filled with accounts of signs and rumblings, the prelude. it would seem, to another revolutionary outbreak. The popular disappointment at the ineffectiveness of the third Duma (see our summary on another page this month), and dissatisfaction with the increasingly conservative do-nothing policy of the Octobrists, the majority party in it, is now being translated



PREMIER STOLYPIN OF RUSSIA
(Who, last month, employed some sensational parliamentary tactics in the Duma)

into action. The government is in perpetual conflict with the universities, and the student demonstrations all over the Empire, called forth principally by the death of Tolstoy, have already completely disorganized the Russian education system. More than 120 university chairs have been declared vacant by the government, and more than 1000 students are in jail for taking part in the disturbances. Even the semi-official organs admit a dangerous state of mind. They go further; they use the word revolution freely. The new Minister of Education, Dr. Kasso, insists that the universities should confine themselves to classical training, and should not introduce utilitarian studies, or permit students to agitate on political questions. The council of ministers has restricted the percentage of Jews who are to be allowed to take state examinations. On the other hand, there is a bill before the Duma for the abolition of the Pale. Meanwhile, thousands of Jews who have peacefully resided without the Pale for many years, have, during the past months, been expelled with great severity.

*Changing
Party Lines
in Duma*

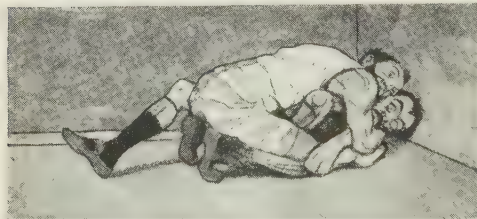
Party lines in the Duma itself have become confused. The new manifestation of public sentiment throughout the Empire has thoroughly aroused the Octobrists, those who claim

to be working for the accomplishment of the reforms set forth in Czar Nicholas' manifesto of October 30, 1906. The more progressive element accuse the Octobrists of permitting the "uninterrupted murder of human offenders" and the inhuman treatment of political prisoners, claiming, further, that the dominant party has killed every liberal measure in the Duma, and has failed to carry out every promise to give political liberty to Russia. The Octobrists, we now learn, are quarreling among themselves. At a recent meeting of the members of this party in St. Petersburg, according to an account which we find in *Novoye Vremya*, the reactionary daily, the more progressive members of the party were bitter in their criticism of the majority. Such words as the following are new at Russian political meetings:

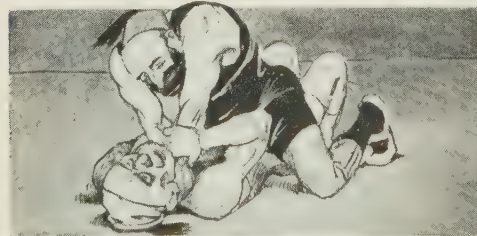
Has not the Duma been transformed into a superfluous department of the government, and are not its members men who have remained sticking in the mud of the former régime? What do you present to the people on the eve of the new election? What sort of a face can you show them? What have you done for the people? Do you



RUSSIA vs. CHINA. "In the name of civilization."



UNCLE SAM vs. MEXICO: "In the name of law and order."



TURKEY vs. ALBANIA: "In the name of liberty."

A CYNICAL AUSTRIAN VIEW OF SOME STRAINED INTERNATIONAL SITUATIONS

(Showing the continental European view of the "civilizing missions" of (1) Russia in China; (2) America in Mexico; (3) Turkey in Albania)

From *Muskete* (Vienna)

think it is easy to live in the provinces without strict legal security, in constant dependence upon the humors of the government administration, upon the arbitrary conduct of a corrupt and all-powerful police? If you cannot secure all the civil rights which are not a revolutionary dream but which you were called to secure by the Czar himself, then the people will have nothing else to do but place power in the hands of firmer and more insistent representatives.

Constitutionalism gains only very slowly in Russia, but it does gain. With each month the progress is noted.

Two Years of the Young Turks

On the twenty-seventh day of last month the new Turkish régime, under the leadership of the Young Turk party, completed its second year of existence. It was on April 27, 1909, that Abdul Hamid was deposed, and the new government, with Sultan Mohammed V., at its head began its reform work. It will be useful at this time, to sum up the activities of the first modern government the Ottoman Empire has ever had. There has been much criticism of the activities of the Young Turk party, and many times has the question been repeated, both at home and abroad, Have the Young Turks made good? A summing up of the reforms actually accomplished in the face of enormous obstacles will, we believe, answer this question in the affirmative.

Some Solid Achievements

The complete liberation of Macedonia from European control, an achievement of the past two years, has been a great victory for the Turks. It is true that Ottoman finances have not yet been completely reorganized, but a beginning has been made in this direction. From impartial and reliable authority we learn that the civil and military officials are promptly paid; that the collection of taxes is being made justly and regularly; that the revenue has thereby been increased by 25 per cent, during the past eighteen months; and that the general economic situation has improved greatly. Many important public works have been begun, including the enlarging and deepening of harbors; the building of electric and other railroads; the establishment of electric lighting plants; and the general encouragement of all sorts of business and industrial establishments. Within recent weeks a French syndicate has begun the construction of highways on a large scale throughout European Turkey, which when completed (within four years), will bring the present total of 12,000 kilometers up to 30,000 kilometers. Concessions for the construction of railroads have been made on fair

and progressive lines in such a way as to open up new sections rich in natural resources. The famous Bagdad railway, about which Germany, Russia and England have disputed so long, is already a settled matter, as the present government in Turkey has come to an agreement with all parties. The arrangement with Great Britain as to the terminus of the railroad on the Persian Gulf, probably at Koweit, is in a fair way to settlement, as both parties are showing a conciliatory spirit. It is expected that the railroad will be finished within the next five years. It will throw open great trade centers and will unite Europe to Asia. It will make Mesopotamia, if the plans of Sir William Willcox, the British engineer in the employ of the Turkish Government, are carried out, literally a new Eden. The English scheme contemplates the irrigation of the actual spot upon which antiquarians believe the original Garden of Eden stood. The only point of disaffection at home now disturbing the government at Constantinople is the revolt of the Albanians for a larger measure of local autonomy. This revolt had assumed rather serious proportions last month.

*Financial
and Military
Reforms*

Chronic budget deficits have been a national disease in Turkey. To remedy these the government has recently made arrangements with a syndicate of German and Austrian bankers for a loan of \$55,000,000, which was successfully floated in March. At the same time, Djavid Bey, the Minister of Finance, with the help of the Ottoman bank and other powerful financial establishments, has succeeded in establishing current financial operations upon a modern basis. The government is also endeavoring to secure the approval of the powers to a proposed increase of duty on imports and to the abrogation of the so-called capitulations. The largest portion, by far, of the annual appropriations and the new loans are to be used for the reforms agreed upon and contemplated in the army and navy, "which are to be the guarantee against internal and foreign enemies." Under the management and at the initiative of War Minister, Mahmoud Chefket Pasha, with the assistance of Marshal von der Goltz Pasha and other German-Turkish officers, the army has been thoroughly reorganized and its discipline and equipment vastly improved. A military authority in Berlin is quoted as admitting

that "its efficiency is fast approaching that of the German army." Government appropriations and popular subscriptions have been applied to the improvement of the navy also. Several cruisers and a number of gun boats and torpedo boats have been bought abroad, while an elaborate plan has been prepared, which will, before long, give Turkey "a navy justified by her geographical position." At its last session, Parliament voted \$25,000,000 for the navy. Last month a contract was signed with the English house of Armstrongs for the construction of three battle ships of 16,500 tons and for many smaller vessels.

*A New System
of
Education*

The internal administration of the government has vastly improved. New progressive governors have been appointed in the provinces. The press has been elevated and made more free. Many laws improving municipal administration have been passed, and at the present session, there is a general measure under consideration to give more complete local government to the municipalities. The city police and the rural gendarmerie have been much improved, and trade unions have been formed among many classes of laborers. The system of justice has been overhauled. The new civil procedure, under a thoroughly modern code, went into effect several months ago. This puts an end to the shameful judicial procedure which has heretofore been the rule in Turkey. During the present session Parliament will also pass laws, it promises, reorganizing other phases of civil procedure; government accounting; the administration of agricultural legislation; the conduct of national mines; the preservation of the forests; the regular taking of the census; and the reorganization of the Cheri or religious courts. In the face of the most serious obstacles, the government has been effecting a most radical change of the entire administration of public instruction. Many normal schools for both sexes have been established, and the ministry of education is sending students, designated by competitive examination, to Europe and America, to study. A new law comprising more than 300 articles will be submitted to the Parliament at the present session, dealing with the higher, secondary and elementary schools, and providing for the building of hundreds of new edifices for public instruction.



ANNOUNCEMENTS OF CONVENTIONS, CELEBRATIONS, AND EXPOSITIONS, 1911

CELEBRATIONS AND EXPOSITIONS

	PLACE	DATE	SECRETARY
Exhibition of Electrical Engineering and Machinery	London	Sept. 23-Oct. 21	
International Art Exhibition	Rome, Italy	April-October	
International Exhibition of Industries and Labor	Torino, Italy	May—	Harrison S. Morris, American Embassy, Rome.
International Horticultural Exhibition	London	May 22-30	Italian State Railway, 281 Fifth Avenue, New York.
International Hygiene Exposition and Exposition	Dresden, Germany	May-October	Edward White, 7 Victoria Street, Westminster, London, S. W.
International Textile Industry Exhibition	Chicago, Ill.	September, 18-30	George M. Spangler, Jr., Association of Commerce, Chicago.
Northwest Development Congress	Roubaix, France	May	
Universal Races Congress	Seattle, Wash.	September 5-9	Seattle Commercial Club, Seattle, Wash.
	University of London	July 26-29	G. Spiller, 63 South Hill Park, Hampstead, London.

EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS

Catholic Summer School of America	Cliff Haven, N. Y.	July 3-Sept. 8	Charles Murray, 7 East 42nd Street, New York.
Chautauqua Assembly and Summer Schools	Chautauqua, N. Y.	June 29-Aug. 27	E. H. Bichfeldt, Chautauqua, N. Y.
National Education Association	San Francisco, Cal.	July 8-14	Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Summer School of the South	Knoxville, Tenn.	June 20-July 28	P. P. Claxton (Superintendent), Knoxville, Tenn.

MEETINGS OF RELIGIOUS BODIES

American Baptist Foreign Missionary Society	Philadelphia, Pa.	June 16	Rev. C. A. Walker, Clarion, Pa.
American Baptist Home Missionary Society	Philadelphia, Pa.	June 15	H. L. Morehouse, 23 East 26th Street, New York.
American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions	Milwaukee, Wis.	October 10-13	James L. Barton, D. D., 14 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
American Federation of United Methodist Societies	Columbus, Ohio	August 20	Anthony Maure, 407 Victoria Building, St. Louis, Mo.
American Methodist Association	Chicago, Ill.	October 17-19	C. J. Ryder, D. D., 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.
American Unitarian Association	Boston, Mass.	May 22-27	Lewis G. Wilson, 25 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
Baptist World Alliance	Philadelphia, Pa.	June 19-25	E. C. Morris, Helena, Ark.
Brotherhood of St. Andrew	Philadelphia, Pa.	June 19	Rev. George T. Webb, 1701 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.
Conference of Episcopal Church Clubs	Buffalo, N. Y.	October 18-22	Hubert Carteton, 88 Broad Street, Boston, Mass.
Congregational Home-Missionary Society	Philadelphia, Pa.	May 2-3	Charles F. Chase, New Britain, Conn.
Evangelical Lutheran Church in North America (General Council)	San Francisco, Cal.	June 7-9	Hubert C. Herrington, D. D., 287 Court Avenue, New York.
Free Religious Association of America	Lancaster, Pa.	September 14	William W. Wright, D. D., 25 Cedar Street, Milwaukee.
International Christian Endeavor Convention	Boston, Mass.	July 20-22	William W. Wright, D. D., 25 Cedar Street, Milwaukee.
International Sunday School Convention	Atlantic City, N. J.	July 20-22	William Shaw, Temple, Boston, Mass.
National Conference of Unitarian and Other Christian Churches	Washington, D. C.	October 17-20	Morton Lawrence, 805 Hartford Building, Chicago, Ill.
National Spiritualists Association	San Francisco, Cal.	October 23-25	Walter F. Greenman, 684 Astor Street, Milwaukee, Wis.
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union	Washington, D. C.	Oct. 25-Nov. 1	George W. Kates, 600 Pennsylvania Avenue, S. E., Washington, D. C.
Presbyterian Church (North), General Assembly	Milwaukee, Wis.	June 10-Sept. 30	Frances P. Parks, Evanston, Ill.
Presbyterian Church (South), General Assembly	Atlantic City, N. J.	May 18-June 1	A. G. Moody, East Northfield, Mass.
Reformed Church in the United States	Asbury Park, N. J.	May 18-June 1	W. H. Roberts, D. D., 1319 Walnut Street, Philadelphia.
United Methodist Church in the United States	Louisville, Ky.	May 18	Thomas H. Law, D. D., Spartanburg, S. C.
Universalist General Convention	Canton, Ohio	June 8	William H. DeHart, D. D., Raritan, N. J.
World Missionary Exposition	Washington, Pa.	May 16	S. W. Anderson, Box 48, Erie, Pa.
Young People's Missionary Movement, General Conference	Springfield, Mass.	May 24	D. F. McGill, D. D., 1508 Chartiers Street, N. S., Pittsburgh.
	Boston, Mass.	October 20	I. M. Atwood, D. D., 189 Harvard Street, Rochester, N. Y.
	Silver Bay, N. Y.	April 24-May 20	
		July 11-20	Harry S. Myers, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York.

SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL GATHERINGS

American Academy of Medicine	Los Angeles, Cal.
American Association for the Advancement of Science	Washington, D. C.
American Bar Association	Boston, Mass.
American Chemical Society	Indianapolis, Ind.
American Climatological Association	Montreal, Canada.
American Electrochemical Society	Toronto, Canada.
American Historical Association	Buffalo, N. Y.
American Institute of Electrical Engineers	Chicago, Ill.
American Institute of Homoeopathy	Narragansett Pier, R. I.
American Institute of Mining Engineers	San Francisco, Cal.
American Medical Association	Pasadena, Cal.
American Mining Congress	Los Angeles, Cal.
American Society of Civil Engineers	Chicago, Ill.
American Society of Mechanical Engineers	Chattanooga, Tenn.
American Therapeutic Society	Pittsburg, Pa.
International Congress on Applied Electricity	Boston, Mass.
International Eclectic Medical Association	Turin, Italy
Nurses Associated Alumnae of the United States	Louisville, Ky.
	Boston, Mass.

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL CONFERENCES

American Economic Association	Washington, D. C.
American Public Health Association	Havana, Cuba.
Conference on City Planning	Philadelphia, Pa.
International Congress on Child Welfare	Washington, D. C.
International Congress on Tuberculosis	Rome, Italy.
International Dairy Congress	Stockholm, Sweden.
International Conference on Social Hygiene	Rome, Italy.
Latin American Conference on International Arbitration	Buenos Aires, Argentina.
National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis	London, Eng.
National Conference of Charities and Correction	Denver, Colo.
National Conference on City Planning	Boston, Mass.
National Municipal League	Rochester, N. Y.
National Peace Congress	Baltimore, Md.
Playground Association of America	Washington, D. C.

OTHER OCCASIONS

American Bankers' Association	Richmond, Va.
American Cotton Manufacturers' Association	Columbus, Ohio.
Farmers' National Congress	Rochester, N. Y.
Grand Army of the Republic, National Encampment	New York City.
International Sunshine Society	New York City.
National Association of Manufacturers	New York City.
National Electric Light Association	Chicago, Ill.
National Industrial Exhibition	Chicago, Ill.
National Military Tournament	Chicago, Ill.
Sons of the American Revolution, National Society	Louisville, Ky.
Sons of Veterans, National Encampment	Rochester, N. Y.
United Confederate Veterans, National Reunion	Little Rock, Ark.
United Daughters of the Confederacy, General Convention	Richmond, Va.

June 23-26	Charles McIntire, 52 No. Fourth Street, Easton, Pa.
December 27	L. O. B. Smith, 1000 Wisconsin, Washington, D. C.
August 29-31	George Whitecock, Continental Building, Baltimore, Md.
June 27-July 1	Charles L. Parsons, Durham, N. H.
June 13-14	Guy Hinsdale, M. D., Hot Springs, Va.
September 21-23	Prof. Joseph W. Richards, South Bethlehem, Pa.
December 26-30	W. G. Leland, 500 Bond Building, Washington, D. C.
June	Ralph W. Pope, 33 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
June 25-July 1	J. Richey Horner, M. D., Rose Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
October 10-16	Joseph Struthers, 29 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
May 18-24	George B. Utley, 78 E. Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
June 20-21	George Callahan, 900 C. P. Bldg., Denver, Colo.
October 21	Charles Warren Hunt, 235 Dearborn Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
June 13-16	Charles Warren Hunt, 220 West Fifty-ninth Street, New York.
May 11-13	L. G. French, 24 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
September 9-20	Noble P. Barnes, M. D., 212 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.
June 20-23	W. P. Best, M. D., Indianapolis, Ind.
May 31-June 3	Miss A. G. Deans, City Tuberculosis Hospital, Detroit, Mich.
December 27-30	Prof. T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
December 4-9	William C. Woodward, M. D., 1766 Lanier Place, Washington, D. C.
May 15-17	Flavel Shurtlett, 19 Congress Street, Boston, Mass.
April 25-May 2	Mrs. Helen T. Birney, Loan and Trust Building, Washington, D. C.
September 24-30	Vittorio Ascoli, 36 Via in Lucina, Rome.
June 28-July 1	Saverio Santori, 38 Via Borgognona, Rome, Italy.
Sept. 11-15 Feb. 12	Philips, Monnik Lake, N. Y.
June 20-26	Lyons, Portland, Me.
June 7-14	Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.
June 2-4	Chamber of Commerce, Rochester, N. Y.
November 13-17	Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa.
May 3-5	Tunstall Smith, The Preston, Baltimore, Md.
May 10-12	H. S. Braucher, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

November	Fred E. Farnsworth, 11 Pine Street, New York.
May 15-16	C. B. Bryant, Charlotte, Va.
October 13-17	George M. Whitaker, 1404 Harvard Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
August 21	Ephraim B. Stillings (Adjutant-General), State House, Boston, Mass.
May 18-20	Mrs. M. D. Beattie, 96 Fifth Avenue, New York.
May 15-17	H. H. Lewis, 170 Broadway, New York.
May 29-June 2	A. C. Martin, 33 West Thirty-ninth Street, New York.
June 5-9	Arthur Hooker Hotel LaSalle, Chicago, Ill.
April 23-30	Association of American Institutions, Washington, D. C.
August 21	A. H. Clark, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.
May 16-18	Horace H. Hammer, Reading Pa.
November 14	Gen. William E. Mickle, New Orleans, La.
	Mrs. R. W. McKinney, Drawer 490, Paducah, Ky.



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CONSECRATION OF A PART OF THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. JOHN THE DIVINE, NEW YORK CITY, ON APRIL 19

(Procession leaving the Cathedral after the services)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From March 21 to April 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

April 4.—The Sixty-second Congress meets in special session. . . . Champ Clark (Dem., Mo.) is elected Speaker of the House, and he outlines the Democratic program.

April 5.—The President's message, urging approval of the Canadian reciprocity agreement, is read in both branches. . . . In the House, the Democratic majority forces the adoption, without amendment, of the code of rules prepared by its Rules Committee.

April 6.—In the Senate, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) introduces a resolution calling for another investigation of the Lorimer bribery charges.

April 11.—The House approves the personnel of the standing committees as selected by the Democratic caucus and by Mr. Mann (Rep., Ill.), the minority leader.

April 12.—In the House, Mr. Underwood (Dem., Ala.), chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, introduces the Canadian Reciprocity bill and a measure placing on the free list more than a hundred articles used by farmers.

April 13.—In the Senate, Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) commends the attitude of President Taft toward the Mexican insurrection. . . . The House,

by vote of 296 to 16, passes the bill providing for the direct election of Senators without federal control; the Canadian Reciprocity bill is favorably reported from the Ways and Means Committee.

April 14.—The House unanimously passes the Rucker bill providing for publicity of campaign contributions before and after national elections.

April 15.—The House begins the debate on the Canadian Reciprocity bill, Mr. Kitchin (Dem., N. C.) speaking in favor of it and Mr. Hinds (Rep., Me.) against it.

April 17.—In the Senate, Mr. Chamberlain (Dem., Ore.) defends the principle of the recall provisions of the Arizona constitution. . . . The House debates the Canadian Reciprocity bill.

April 18.—The House considers the Canadian Reciprocity measure.

April 19.—The House continues the debate on the Canadian Reciprocity bill, ex-Speaker Cannon (Rep., Ill.) criticizing it; the Farmers Free List bill, which would cause a reduction in the revenue of \$10,000,000, is reported from committee.

April 20.—In the House, general debate on the Canadian Reciprocity measure is closed; the Committee on Census reports a Reapportionment bill enlarging the membership of the House to 433.



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THE NORTH GERMAN LLOYD STEAMSHIP "PRINZESS IRENE" AGROUND ON THE LONG ISLAND COAST LAST MONTH

(About 1700 passengers were transshipped to New York before the ship was floated)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

March 24.—The New York State workmen's compensation law is declared unconstitutional by the Court of Appeals.

March 26.—The Postmaster-General announces that after July 1, magazines will be transported in carloads as fast freight.

March 28.—The Minnesota House passes without a dissenting vote the resolution endorsing the income-tax amendment to the Constitution.

March 29.—Governor Foss appoints a commission to consider the development of inland waterways along the Massachusetts coast. . . . The President nominates Francis W. Bird for Appraiser of the Port of New York.

March 30.—The Maine Legislature ratifies the income-tax amendment, reversing its previous action at the instance of Governor Plaisted.

March 31.—The New York Legislature, after a deadlock lasting ten weeks, elects Supreme Court Justice James A. O'Gorman (Dem.) to succeed Chauncey M. Depew (Rep.) in the United States Senate.

April 1.—A caucus of the Democratic members of the House of Representatives adopts a legislative program; the majority members of standing committees are announced.

April 3.—The United States Supreme Court holds that under the commodities clause of the Hepburn act the railroads must be actually independent of the coal companies.

April 4.—Carter H. Harrison (Dem.) is elected mayor of Chicago for the fifth time, defeating Charles E. Merriam (Rep.). . . . Mayor J. Barry Mahool is defeated in the Democratic mayoralty primary in Baltimore by the organization candidate. . . . Charles D. Hilles becomes Secretary to the President.

April 6.—The Tennessee Senate endorses the income-tax amendment, completing ratification by that State. . . . The New Hampshire Senate passes

the House bill providing for the purchase by the State of Crawford Notch, with its extensive forests.

April 7.—Thomas S. Martin (Dem., Va.) is chosen minority leader of the Senate.

April 8.—Federal Judge Sanborn, in an opinion handed down at St. Paul, decides the Minnesota rate case in favor of the railroads.

April 10.—The United States Court of Appeals reverses the decision in the Danbury hat case, whereby the boycotting union was assessed \$232,000 damages. . . . The new Court of Customs Appeals renders a decision which in effect affirms the right of the Government to make a reciprocal tariff arrangement with Canada.

April 11.—A caucus of the Democratic members of the House decides that reciprocity with Canada and a farmers' free list will be the order of business.

April 12.—William S. Kenyon (Rep.), Assistant to the Attorney-General, is elected to the United States Senate by the Iowa Legislature after a twelve-weeks deadlock.

April 14.—The resignation of David Jayne Hill as ambassador to Germany is announced at Washington.

April 15.—The Sixth Cavalry, stationed at Des Moines, Ia., is ordered to Arizona to protect the lives and property of Americans along the Mexican border.

April 17.—Edward F. Croker resigns as chief of the New York Fire Department in order to establish a private bureau of fire prevention. . . . The income-tax amendment is ratified by the lower houses of the Massachusetts and Florida legislatures and by the Arkansas Senate.

April 19.—Governor Wilson of New Jersey signs the Geran primary and election bill. . . . The New York Senate ratifies the federal income-tax amendment.

April 20.—The stringent Corrupt Practices bill passed by the New Jersey Legislature is signed by Governor Wilson.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

March 21.—It is announced from Honduras that during a riot of revolutionists near Tegucigalpa, Generals Lara and Palma, and forty of the Government soldiers under them, lost their lives. . . . The Canadian immigration department takes steps to bar 165 negro emigrants from Oklahoma.

March 24.—The members of the Mexican cabinet hand their resignations to President Diaz.

March 25.—Señor de la Barra, Mexican ambassador to the United States, accepts the ministry of foreign affairs in the new Diaz cabinet.

March 27.—The personnel of the Mexican cabinet is announced; Manuel de Zamacona y Inclan succeeds Señor de la Barra as ambassador to the United States.

March 28.—Several thousand wine-growers at Bar-sur-Aube protest against the recent law which excludes Aube from the champagne region. . . . The Russian Duma accuses the Government of unconstitutional practice in promulgating the Zemstvo bill. . . . The Spanish cabinet unanimously approves the proposed measure regulating religious associations.

March 29.—The Japanese Privy Council ratifies the commercial treaty with the United States. . . . The cabinet of Premier Giolitti, in Italy, includes most of the members of the former ministry.

March 30.—The lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath is dissolved and a new election ordered.

March 31.—The German Reichstag calls upon the Government to arrange other treaties of arbitration similar to the Anglo-German agreement.

April 1.—President Diaz, at the opening of the Mexican Congress, outlines his plan for governmental reform, including the principle of a single term in office. . . . The new Dutch tariff bill, providing an increase of \$4,000,000 in the revenue, is introduced in the parliament. . . . The Spanish cabinet under Premier Canalejas resigns after a debate upon the Ferrer controversy.

April 2.—Señor Canalejas consents to remain Premier in Spain, being permitted to reorganize his cabinet.

April 3.—An imperial edict in China emphasizes the need of a large army and appoints the Regent as commander-in-chief. . . . Turkish troops defeat the insurgents in Scutari, Albania, with great slaughter.

April 4.—Premier Canalejas announces in the Spanish Chamber that he will carry out unchanged the program of the former ministry. . . . A surplus of \$30,000,000 is shown at the close of the Canadian fiscal year.

April 5.—Debate upon the reciprocity agreement with the United States is resumed in the Canadian Parliament; the New Brunswick legislature refuses to endorse the agreement.

April 6.—The Russian Council of the Empire attacks the Government, for the first time, for promulgating the Zemstvo bill during an artificially created recess of the Duma.

April 7.—The Albanian rebels defeat the Turkish troops after several days fighting.

April 9.—The debate on the Ferrer case in the Spanish Chamber ends without decisive action.

April 10.—A Spanish republic is proclaimed after an uprising at Canillas de Aceituna, in the province of Malaga.

April 11-12.—After the passage by the French

Senate of a measure abolishing territorial delimitations for the production of champagne, the wine-growers of the department of Marne riot in protest; many establishments are burned and thousands of gallons of champagne are destroyed.

April 12.—The budget committee of the Duma approves a provision of \$75,000,000 for defenses on the Black Sea.

April 13.—A serious uprising is reported at Fez, the Moroccan troops temporarily defeating the rebellious tribesmen.

April 14.—Order is restored in the department of Marne, France, several of the wine-growers being sentenced to short terms of imprisonment.

April 17.—Elections for a constituent assembly are held in Nicaragua, the Liberals refusing to vote.

April 19.—The terms of the decree of separation of church and state in Portugal are announced; Catholicism is no longer to be the state religion, and entire liberty of all creeds is granted.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

April 3.—A treaty of trade and navigation between Great Britain and Japan is signed at London, providing reductions in the tariff on textile and metal imports into Japan. . . . It is announced that Great Britain and the United States have agreed to arbitrate the Webster claim, involving the ownership of millions of acres of land in New Zealand.

April 4.—Ratifications of the Japanese-American commercial treaty are exchanged at Tokyo.

April 14.—President Taft warns the Mexican Government and the insurgents that they must not endanger the lives of Americans by fighting near the border.

April 15.—The \$50,000,000 loan to China, participated in by American, British, French, and German bankers, is signed at Peking.

April 17.—During an engagement between Government troops and the insurgents in Mexico, near the border, several non-combatant residents of Douglas, Ariz., are injured by stray bullets.

April 18.—The Mexican Government assures President Taft that fighting near the American border will be restricted.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

March 21.—The Turkish army and navy loan of \$31,500,000 is heavily oversubscribed in Berlin.

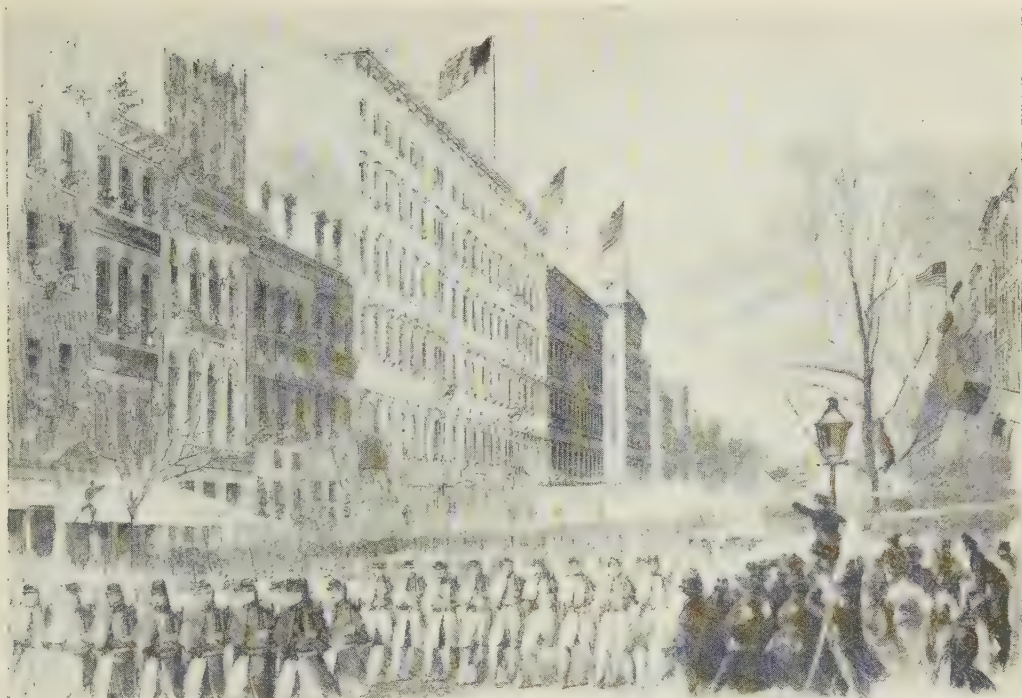
March 22.—Germany's first turbine battleship, christened the *Kaiser* by the Empress, is launched at Kiel.

March 24.—Roger Sommer, at Mouzon, France, carries thirteen persons in his biplane, the aggregate weight being 1436 pounds.

March 25.—A factory fire in New York City results in the death of 145 persons, most of them women; many are forced to jump from the upper stories owing to inadequate means of escape. . . . The steamer *Sechelt* founders off Vancouver Island, twenty-six persons being drowned.

March 27.—King Victor Emmanuel formally inaugurates the celebration of Italian unity, at Rome.

March 29.—The State capitol at Albany, N. Y., is partially destroyed by fire; many valuable historical documents in the State Library are burned. . . . A mass-meeting is held at London in com-



From a drawing published in *Harper's Weekly*

A SCENE OF APRIL, 1861, COMMEMORATED LAST MONTH.—THE MARCHING OF THE NEW YORK SEVENTH REGIMENT FROM ITS ARMORY TO EMBARK FOR THE CIVIL WAR

(See frontispiece of this number)

memoration of the tercentenary of the authorized version of the Bible; a letter from President Taft is warmly received.

March 31.—The last obstruction in the Loetschberg tunnel through the Bernese Alps, the third longest in Europe, is pierced.

April 1-2.—Nine hundred meetings are held in Great Britain to further the arrangement of an Anglo-American arbitration treaty.

April 3.—A hundred deaths from the plague are reported from Eastern Java.

April 6.—The Transatlantic liner *Prinzess Irene*, with 1700 passengers, runs aground on the Long Island coast during a fog.

April 7.—Seventy-three men and boys lose their lives in a fire at the Pancoast Colliery, Scranton.

April 8.—The Archæological Exhibition, one of the features of the Italian jubilee, is opened at Rome. . . . One hundred and twenty-eight coal miners, most of them convicts, are killed by an explosion in the Banner mine near Littleton, Ala.

April 10.—The small coast steamer *Iroquois* founders off Coal Island, B. C., twenty lives being lost. . . . A workmen's strike at Lima, Peru, causes cessation of business there and at Callao.

April 11.—The proprietors of the Triangle Shirtwaist Company, in New York City, are indicted for manslaughter in connection with the fire which caused the death of 145 of their employees.

April 12.—Pierre Prier flies in a monoplane from London to Paris without stop; the 290 miles were covered in 4 hours and 8 minutes.

April 18.—A Committee on Safety is organized in New York City for better protection against loss of life in fires.

April 19.—The Seventh Regiment, of New York City, parades in celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of its enlistment at President Lincoln's call for volunteers. . . . The completed portion of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, in New York City, is consecrated.

OBITUARY

March 22.—Desire Girouard, senior judge of the Supreme Court of Canada, 75.

March 23.—Louis Oscar Roty, a noted French engraver of medals, 65.

March 24.—Stanley Robison, the St. Louis baseball magnate, 54. . . . Gideon B. Thompson, a well-known Indiana newspaper man, 71.

March 26.—Rev. Dr. Edward Payson Crowell, professor emeritus of Latin at Amherst, 81. . . . Henry Mitchell Whitney, head of the Blackstone Memorial Library at Branford, Conn., 68. . . . Brig.-Gen. Ira J. Bloomfield, U. S. A., retired, 76.

March 27.—George Hall Baker, librarian emeritus of Columbia University, 60. . . . James Jack, treasurer of Utah for twenty years, 82. . . . Col. Thomas K. Irwin, president of the Mobile Cotton Exchange, 76. . . . Charles Wallace Hunt, of New York, an inventor of coal-handling apparatus, 70.

March 28.—Samuel Franklin Emmons, the eminent Government geologist, 70. . . . Sydney Brough, the English actor, 42.

March 29.—Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, until recently director of the Metropolitan Museum of

Art in New York City, 65. . . . Young John Pope, former chief justice of the South Carolina Supreme Court, 70.

March 30.—Felix Alexandre Guilman, the noted French organist, 74. . . . Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, expert in sanitary chemistry, 68.

March 31.—Gen. Alfred Iverson, of Alabama, a veteran of the Mexican and Confederate wars, 82. . . . Otto Ringling, the circus man, 52.

April 1.—Dr. Seaman A. Knapp, of the Agricultural Department, an expert on Southern crops, 78.

April 2.—Rev. Dr. Thomas Samuel Hastings, formerly president of the Union Theological Seminary in New York City, 83.

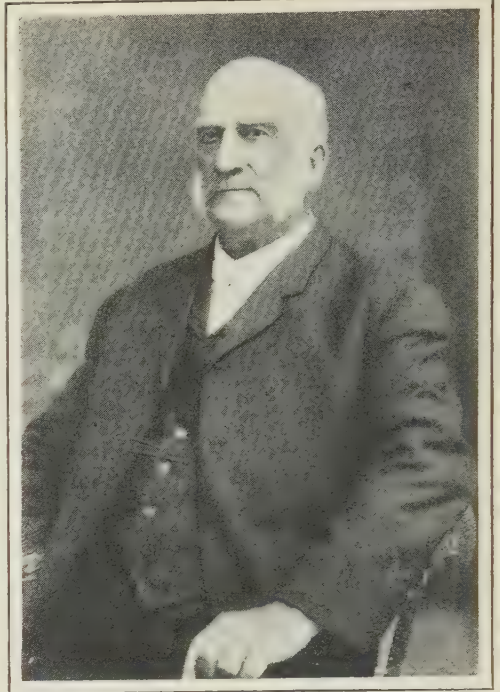
April 4.—Dr. Charles Talbot Poore, an eminent New York surgeon, 71.

April 5.—Charles Frederic Moberly Bell, managing director of the London *Times*, 64. . . . Ex-Congressman Henry Bacon Lovering, of Massachusetts, 70.

April 6.—Hiram Knowles, former United States District Judge for Montana, 76. . . . Craige Lippincott, the Philadelphia publisher, 64. . . . Gen. Henry Clay Young, a veteran of the Civil War, 73. . . . Col. Alexander Savage, of Virginia, a noted Confederate soldier, 79.

April 7.—George Prentiss Butler, a prominent New York financier, 48.

April 8.—Dr. Charles A. Oliver, a noted Philadelphia eye specialist, 57. . . . Ex-Congressman John J. Kleiner, of Indiana, 66. . . . William A. Elmendorf, pioneer sleeping-car manufacturer, 82.



THE LATE DR. SEAMAN A. KNAPP

(Dr. Knapp organized and directed, for the Department of Agriculture, the remarkable Farmers' Cooperative Demonstration work, an account of which appeared in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for November, 1910. He did much to stimulate the growing of rice, cotton, corn, and other Southern crops and had an expert's acquaintance with the agriculture of the Far East.)

April 10.—Tom L. Johnson, four times mayor of Cleveland, 57 (see page 558). . . . Sam Loyd, known as the "puzzle king," 70. . . . Prof. John C. Freeman, head of the department of English at the University of Wisconsin, 69.

April 11.—Lucien Muratore, the French tenor, 33. . . . Martinez Campos, president of the Supreme Court of Spain.

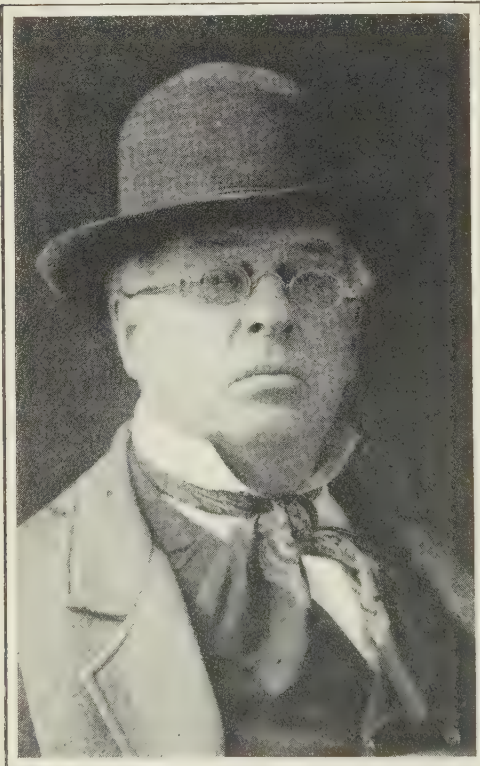
April 12.—Rev. James A. Doonan, formerly president of Georgetown University, 69. . . . Major-Gen. James F. Wilson, a distinguished Canadian soldier, 59.

April 13.—John McLane, former Governor of New Hampshire, 59. . . . George Washington Glick, former Governor of Kansas, 83. . . . William Keith, of California, a noted landscape painter, 72.

April 14.—Denman Thompson, the actor, noted for his production of "The Old Homestead," 77. . . . George Cary Eggleston, the author and former newspaper editor, of New York, 72. . . . George S. Terry, Assistant Treasurer of the United States. . . . Frank W. Benson, Secretary of State and former Governor of Oregon, 53. . . . Miss Evelyn S. Hall, principal of Northfield Seminary (Massachusetts), 57.

April 15.—Col. William M. Olin, Secretary of State of Massachusetts, 65. . . . Mme. Norman Neruda (Lady Halle), the European violinist, 71.

April 18.—Edward A. Moseley, secretary of the Interstate Commerce Commission and an authority on railway safety, 65.



DENMAN THOMPSON AS "JOSH WHITCOMB"
(In his famous play, "The Old Homestead")

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH

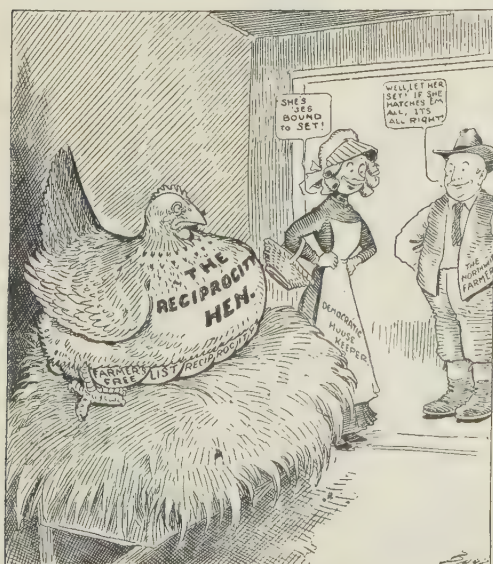


THE PRESIDENT AND THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY

The Donkey likes the Reciprocity salt, but craves a nibble at the tariff reduction thistles.
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)

OF course the Democratic House of Representatives, firm in the belief that it was elected with a clear mandate to reduce the tariff, will not stop with Canadian reciprocity. Indulging its impulses somewhat further in the direction of tariff reduction, it has al-

ready framed a considerable "free list" of articles for farmers' consumption. This is, perhaps, contrary to the inclinations of the stout gentleman labeled "Big Interests," who would like to capture the dear old lady "Democracy."



AUNT DEMOCRACY ADDS AN EGG OR TWO TO THE "SETTING"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

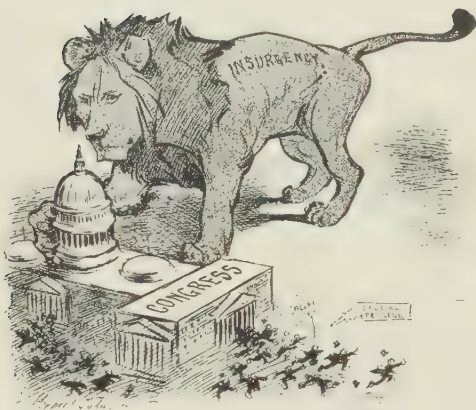


IN WASHINGTON

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)



THE NEW STEPFATHER
From the Sun (Baltimore)



A DISTURBING VISITOR
From LuFollette's Weekly Magazine (Madison)



THE USURPER
From the Ohio State Journal (Columbus)

The Democratic Congress in the rôle of "Stepfather," seems about to apply the rod of reduction to the much pampered tariff child. Mr. Bryan was present at the opening of the new Congress—hence his designation as "The Usurper." The cartoons below refer to the expected reopening of the Lorimer case and to the enactment of Governor Wilson's election-reform measure in New Jersey.



HAVE I GOT TO SCRUB THAT BOY AGAIN?
From the Traveler (Boston)



"MY TURN TO RIDE NOW"
From the Jersey Journal (Jersey City)

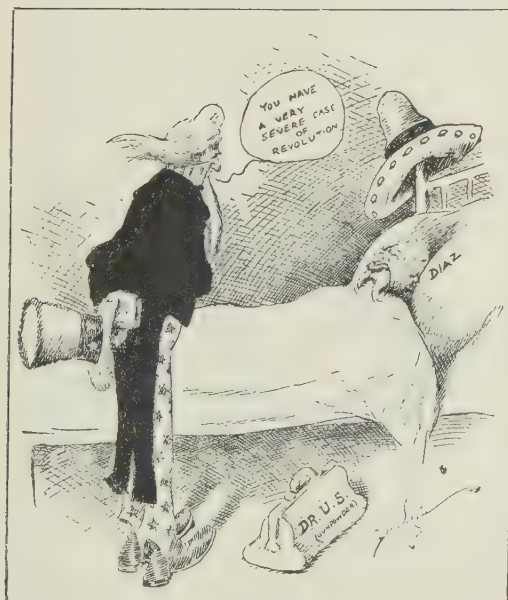


THE WHITE-HOUSE MAN'S BURDEN

UNCLE TAFT (on Mexican frontier): "Who goes there?"
 FILIBUSTER: "I do!"
 UNCLE TAFT: "Guess you can't."
 FILIBUSTER: "Well, who are you, anyhow?"
 UNCLE TAFT: "That's my business. All this hemisphere is my business."

From *Punch* (London)

The cartoon above reflects the American attitude toward filibustering, while the juggler cartoon below refers to the failure of a reported secret treaty between Mexico and Japan.



DID HE SEND FOR THE DOCTOR?

From the *Journal* (Atlanta)



THE JUGGLER DROPPED ONE

From the *American* (Baltimore)



THE PREMATURE REJOICINGS OF THE BRITISH TARIFF REFORMERS

(Mr. Balfour and his fellow mariners on the good ship *Tariff Reform* celebrating Canada's concessions to British trade by a bonfire to "Imperial preference." Suddenly they learn that the supposed island is in reality a fish, "Reciprocity," which presently casts them indignantly into the waves.) From the *Westminster Gazette* (London)



AUSTRIA ALWAYS LATE
From *Kikeriki* (Vienna)

The above cartoon amusingly portrays an English phase of Canadian reciprocity.

In the small locomotive cartoon is shown an Italian view of Austria's belated efforts to secure a share in the construction of the Bagdad Railway.

The crowning of King Labor in Australia is a very appropriate idea, for nowhere in the world is organized labor so powerful in politics as in Australia. The Labor ministry directs its national policies and initiates most of its legislation.



CROWNING KING LABOR IN AUSTRALIA
From *Punch* (Melbourne)



ENGLAND'S GREETING TO ITALY ON HER FIFTIETH BIRTHDAY

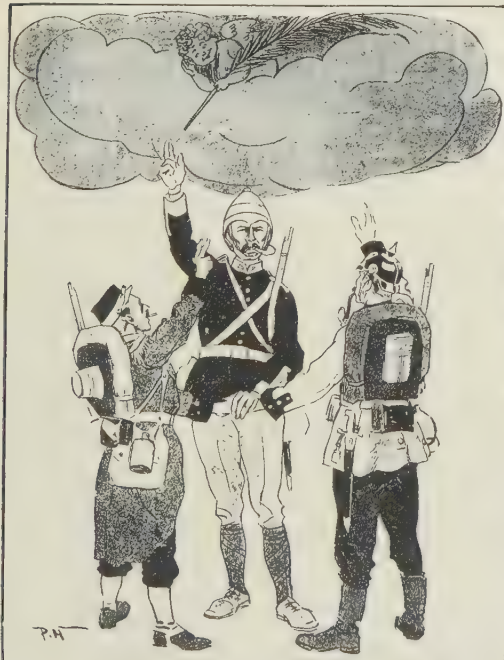
MR. PUNCH (to United Italy): "Madam, my most affectionate congratulations. Britannia and I were the first to salute you at your debut" (referring to the cartoon that appeared in *Punch* on March 30, 1861).



EUROPE AND DISARMAMENT

The military Powers are feigning friendship, but are jealous of one another's armaments. Each tries to reduce that of his neighbor, but in the background they are menaced by terrible disturbances.

From *Papagallo* (Bologna)



AH!

THE POWERS: "So now we are in agreement?"
PEACE ANGEL ABOVE: "About disarmament?"
THE POWERS: "No, certainly not!"

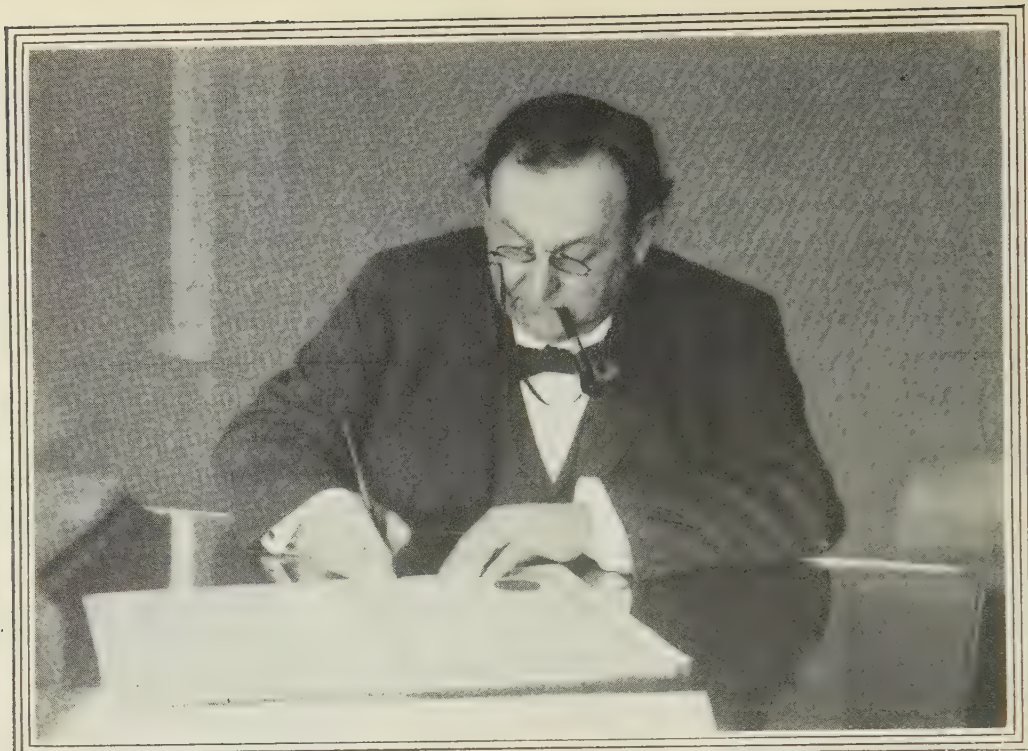
From *Ulk* (Berlin)



THE GERMAN EMPEROR'S GARDENING

THE ANGEL OF PEACE (to the Kaiser): "Why don't you plant some olive branches?"
THE KAISER: "I can't get them to grow in my garden."

From *Pasquino* (Turin)



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THE LATE TOM L. JOHNSON IN HIS OFFICE AS MAYOR OF CLEVELAND

TOM L. JOHNSON'S ACHIEVEMENTS AS MAYOR OF CLEVELAND

BY EDWARD W. BEMIS

(Superintendent of the Cleveland Water Department, 1901-8)

IN the untimely death of Tom. L. Johnson the country has lost the greatest administrator, the most efficient executive, that the radical movement has produced in this country. No exception can be made of Jefferson, Jackson, Altgeld, Pingree, or Jones.

In the city which is mourning for its famous mayor and great political leader, the papers have been full of his personal traits of love for the people, vision of freedom, courage, magnetism, sweetness of disposition, and heroic fight for life. At his grave his desire for economic justice and his close friendship for Henry George, who inspired his public service, were also emphasized.

It is here proposed to dwell not so much upon what he was or what he believed as upon what he did.

Having with rare discernment selected his heads of departments, such as Baker, Cooley, Springborn, and Kohler, he gave them almost

complete control of the appointment, removal and discipline of their men. Efficiency was ranked far above party. His coöperation in all wise plans was gladly given.

An effort will here be made to chronicle a few of the results that followed these unusual policies. Cleveland soon surpassed most cities in all lines of administration. The development and popularization of its parks and playgrounds, the success of the city purchasing department, the abolition of grade crossings, the development of a group plan for public buildings, the work of the health and building departments, the extension of the sewerage system; the excellence and cheapness of the city garbage and ash removal and of the street paving and cleaning, and many other forward steps, might be noted. A few advances were of so unique a character as to require special mention.

Under Mayor Johnson Cleveland became the one city in America to follow and in some respects to excel Europe in farm colonies for juvenile delinquents, adult criminals, the poor and the tuberculous. The 2300 acres of these colonies, located several miles from the city, attracted widespread attention.

Gambling houses and graft in the police department were abolished as perhaps in no other large city in the country; and arrests for minor offenses were wonderfully reduced without increase of lawlessness or of serious crime. No city in the country became so free from graft in the purchase of supplies and the making of contracts as did Cleveland under Mayor Johnson.

The city has also attracted the attention of all experts as the great example of success in municipal reduction of garbage to fertilizers and oils, on a paying basis.

Mr. Johnson hoped, through his own power of leadership, to jump at once to the most advanced methods of successful administration. In other words, he proposed to prepare the way for municipal ownership of street railways and lighting, by showing that the only municipal industry owned by the city at the beginning of his nine years of administration, the supply of water, could be run on the best business and scientific principles. Even in the heat of campaigns and with the coming into power a year ago of a hostile administration, no one has challenged the success of the Mayor's efforts in this respect. As the one who was called upon to execute this work, the writer can bear the fullest tribute to the Mayor's absolute sincerity of purpose and disinterestedness in it all.

Few realized the intensity and duration of the struggle which this required of the Mayor. To be maligned by one's opponents may be expected; to be misunderstood and even deserted at the critical moment by many of one's own friends, as was the Mayor in this and other fights, is among the greatest disappointments of life. Yet he never flinched, for the cause was dear to him. When the fight was at its thickest, and the majority of his party in the Council turned against him because of his efforts for the merit system, he remarked with much feeling, "I believe it is good politics; but anyway it is *decent*."

His support of efficiency in the water department rendered possible the introduction of universal metering and other forms of waste detection, which reduced the per capita consumption of water in Cleveland including leakage and waste, from 165 gallons per day per capita to 90 gallons, in a city

where 50 gallons is used through meters for business purposes.

Another important accomplishment was thus described by a Cleveland writer, Dr. Haworth, who was not in sympathy with some of the Mayor's street-railway policies:

His greatest triumph has been that he has aroused in Cleveland "a civic sense." He has made the people realize that the affairs of the city are their affairs. Such a realization is as valuable an asset as a city can possess, for it is on indifference that misgovernment and corruption thrive. It was this interest in their own affairs that in the last referendum campaign, on one of the hottest nights of the year, held twelve thousand perspiring people breathlessly attentive in and about a tent in which the Mayor and an opponent for two long hours discussed the dry details of franchises and traction management. I do not believe that such a thing would have been possible in any other city in the country.

AN ECONOMICAL ADMINISTRATOR

It was charged that Mr. Johnson's progressive policies were very expensive. This was thoroughly disproved by the yearly volumes of the United States Census Department on the statistics of cities. The report just issued for 1908 shows that the per capita payments for all operating expenses in Cleveland were lower, with three exceptions, than in any other of our sixteen largest cities. Indeed, if the expenditures for schools, libraries, art galleries, and museums be excluded, none of which was under his control, the per capita expenditures of Cleveland were the lowest of the entire group.

It was a frequent remark, that the Mayor's policies were keeping back the growth of the city. But when the census for 1910 showed that there had been a growth of 47 per cent. in the past ten years,—a growth exceeded by only 5 cities out of the twenty-eight having over 200,000 population, this particular charge was dropped.

A REFORMER OF TAX SYSTEMS

The influence of Henry George's teachings upon the work of Mr. Johnson, aside from creating an enthusiasm for public work for the people, was chiefly seen in his taxation and street-railway policies. In the very first year of the Mayor's administration and probably without full authority of law, he began an investigation of the value of land as distinct from improvements, and in so doing also adopted the so-called unit system of valuation of land which recently had been tried in St. Paul and is now recognized as the most satisfactory method.

Under the able leadership of Peter Witt, later Clerk of the Council, facts were produced which so greatly impressed the then president of the New York City tax department and the people throughout Ohio, as to lead to the present admirable system of assessments in those places. Its relation to the Henry George movement lies in the fact that it separates the assessment of land from improvements, gives the only scientific method known of arriving at the value of the former, and thus furnishes the basis of any subsequent increase, should the people wish it, of taxes upon land instead of upon improvements or personal property. Through the Mayor's efforts, also, the taxation of railroads and other public-service corporations was doubled.

THE FIGHT FOR THREE-CENT FARES.

Mr. Johnson's achievements in his nine years of fierce street-railway struggle have never been known outside of Cleveland. That his successes far outbalanced his defeats is becoming more evident with every passing month of continuance of universal three-cent fares throughout the city.

He forced the company to wring most of the water out of its stock, and to limit its returns to 6 per cent. on the rest, which is a better settlement than Massachusetts cities have secured after forty years of State regulation.

For over a year the fare within the city has been only 3 cents, with 1 cent for transfers, while the average fare, including a 5-cent fare in some of the suburbs, has been less than $3\frac{1}{10}$ cents per passenger, or $2\frac{1}{10}$ cents including transfers.

The Mayor was right in holding that pay-enter cars and low fares would greatly stimulate revenues and traffic. The average increase of business during the sixteen years ending with 1909 was 8 per cent. yearly compounded, but under the reduced fares since February, 1910, the increase has been over 18 per cent.

He provided the way, also, for municipal ownership whenever the State law would permit, and at a cost of only about 30 per cent. above the physical value. His one failure in this matter consisted in being obliged to leave the execution of his low-fare program to the

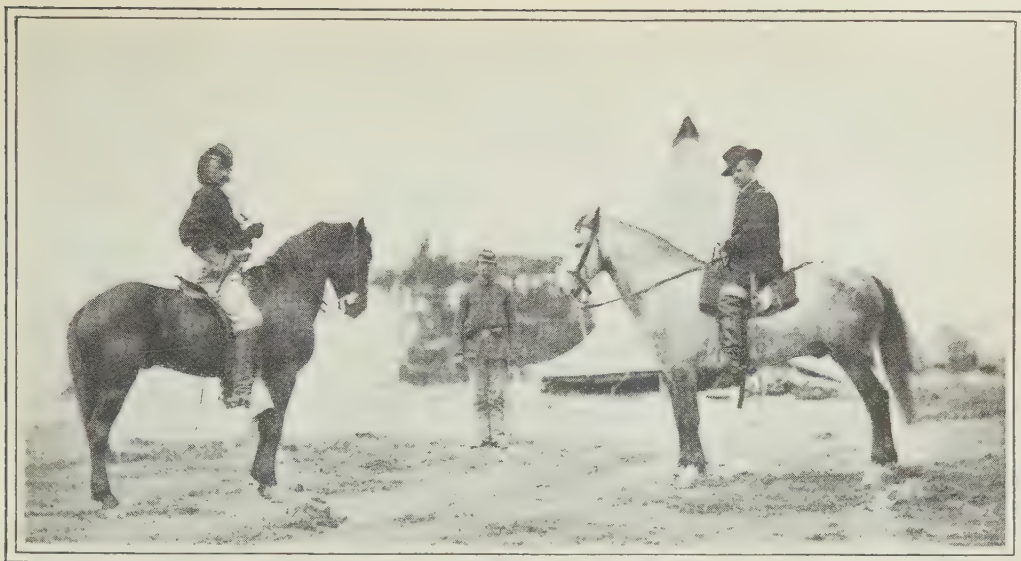
old company, though under some municipal supervision. This company has always claimed that low fares were impossible. Pride of opinion, the pressure of other street-railway-companies, and the interest which its large stockholders and directors have in other street railways, heavily handicap the scheme.

Mr. Johnson had planned the only logical arrangement, which was a holding company pledged in all manner of ways to the success of low fares. That plan was indeed put into operation in 1908, but was ultimately rejected by a one-per-cent. majority on a referendum vote. The immediate causes of that vote were a strike and some mistakes of tact and judgment, quickly taken advantage of by embittered vested interests. The cause back of it all, however, and understood by very few at the time, was a catastrophe as tragic as the physical ailment which precipitated Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo. This was the development of the insidious disease which, in connection with financial and other misfortunes that overtook the Mayor in 1908, deprived the city of some of the wonderful tact and clearness of vision for which he had always been justly famous. Even many of his closest friends and he himself, as he afterward told the writer, did not appreciate until too late what had happened. The Mayor regained his old time poise and attitude of mind, but it came too late to control the elections of 1908 and 1909.

Even to-day, however, when the Cleveland Railway Company is asking the City Council for some modification of its franchise, it is not proposing a higher rate of fare than is now charged. There is, moreover, every indication that Cleveland was preparing to reelect Mr. Johnson by an overwhelming majority in November, as Detroit was preparing to do in the case of Mayor Pingree when the latter passed away in London. There is much pathos in our frequent failure to appreciate our great men until they are gone.

It is too early yet for the country to appreciate fully the results of Mr. Johnson's work, but it is already evident that his hold on his home city will be increasingly felt in the settlement of every big problem of its great future; and it is but a matter of time when the whole country will realize its indebtedness to him.





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CAPT. GEORGE A. CUSTER AND GEN. ALFRED PLEASANTON OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC,
AT FALMOUTH, VA., IN APRIL, 1863

(About two months after this photograph was taken General Pleasanton—the figure at the right—was placed in command of the cavalry corps of the Army of the Potomac, and in that capacity took part in the Gettysburg campaign. Captain Custer—the figure mounted on the black horse at the left—was soon made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and at the head of a brigade of Michigan volunteer cavalry distinguished himself at the battle of Gettysburg and later in Sheridan's Virginia campaigns. In 1876 General Custer and five companies of the Seventh U. S. Cavalry were surrounded and killed by Sioux Indians on the Little Big Horn.)

THE CAVALRY OF THE CIVIL WAR

ITS EVOLUTION AND INFLUENCE

BY GENERAL THEO. F. RODENBOUGH, U. S. A. (RETIRED)

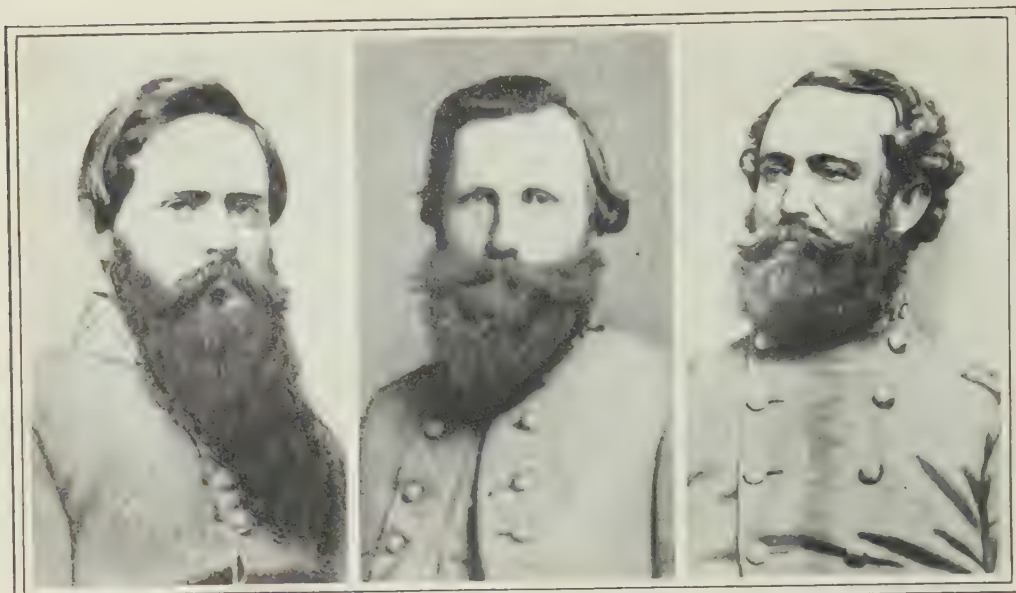
[This article forms the introductory chapter of a volume in the "Photographic History of the Civil War" (Review of Reviews Company), comprising detailed accounts of the organization, armament, equipment and conspicuous achievements—together with sketches of the more famous leaders—of the cavalry of both sides, contributed in collaboration by Federal and Confederate survivors of the war of 1861-65, who have thus joined hands in perpetuating the memory of valorous deeds and patriotic service in which all Americans should have an equal pride. The illustrations, with one exception, —the sketch on page 567—are from war-time photographs.—THE EDITOR.]

IT may surprise non-military readers to learn that the United States, unprepared as it is for war, and unmilitary as are its people, has yet become a model for the most powerful armies of Europe, at least in one respect. The leading generals and teachers in the art and science of war now admit that our grand struggle of 1861-65 was rich in examples of the varied use of mounted troops, in the field, which are worthy of imitation.

Lieutenant General von-Pelet-Narbonne, in a lecture before the Royal United Service Institution of Great Britain, emphatically maintains that "in any case one must remember, that from the days of Napoleon until the present time, in no single campaign has

cavalry exercised so vast an influence over the operations as they did in this war, wherein, of a truth, the personality of the leaders has been very striking; such men as in the South the God-inspired Stuart, and later the redoubtable Fitzhugh Lee; and on the Northern side Sheridan and Pleasanton."

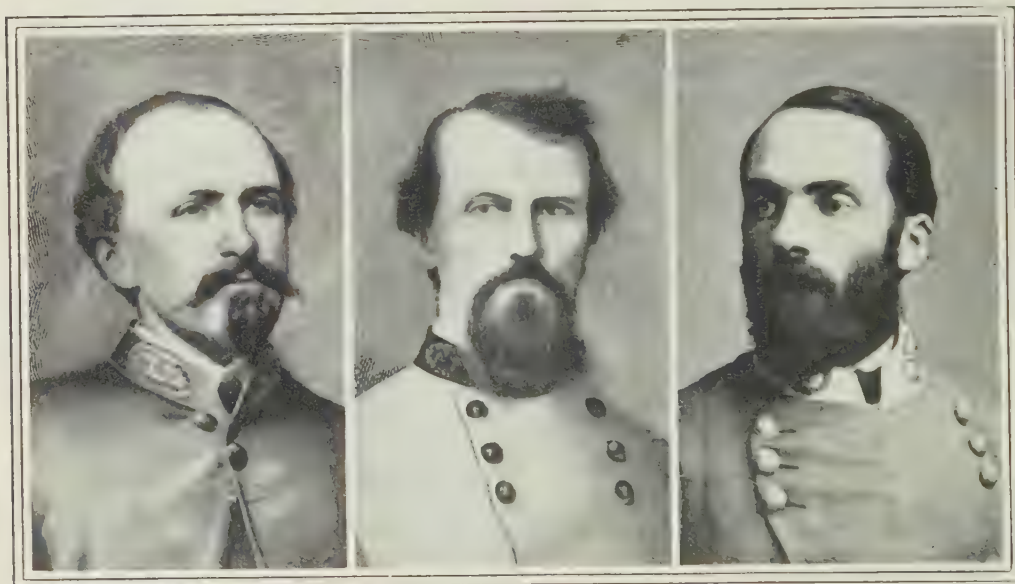
For a long time after our Civil War, except as to its political or commercial bearing, that conflict attracted but little attention abroad. A great German strategist was reported to have said that "the war between the States was largely an affair of armed mobs"—a report, by the way, unverified, but which doubtless had its effect upon military students. In the meantime other wars came to



GENERAL FITZHUGH LEE

GENERAL J. E. B. STUART

GENERAL WADE HAMPTON



GENERAL JOHN H. MORGAN

GENERAL N. B. FORREST

GENERAL JOSEPH WHEELER

DISTINGUISHED CAVALRY COMMANDERS OF THE CONFEDERATE ARMY

(Generals Stuart, Lee, and Wheeler were West Pointers. A generation after the war Generals Lee and Wheeler reëntered the Federal army, serving in the war with Spain. General Stuart, who has been pronounced the most brilliant cavalryman of his time, was mortally wounded in the battle of Yellow Tavern, near Richmond, in 1864.

Morgan, the raider, was killed by Union troops in Tennessee, in September, 1864)

pass in succession—Austro-Prussian (1866); Franco-German (1870); Russo-Turkish (1877) and later the Boer War and that between Russia and Japan. In none of these campaigns were the cavalry operations conspicuous for originality or importance.

Meanwhile, the literature of the American war—official and personal—began to be studied, and its campaigns were made subjects for text-books and monographs by British authors which found ready publishers. Nevertheless, the American cavalry method



GENERAL SHERIDAN GENERAL FORSYTH GENERAL MERRITT GENERAL DEVIN GENERAL CUSTER
A GROUP OF FEDERAL CAVALRY LEADERS IN THE SHENANDOAH CAMPAIGN

has not gained ground abroad without a struggle. On the one hand, the failure of cavalry in recent European wars to achieve success has been made use of by one class of critics, who hold that "the cavalry has had its day"; that "the improved rifle has made cavalry charges impracticable"; that it has degenerated into mere mounted infantry, and that its value as an arm of service has been greatly impaired.

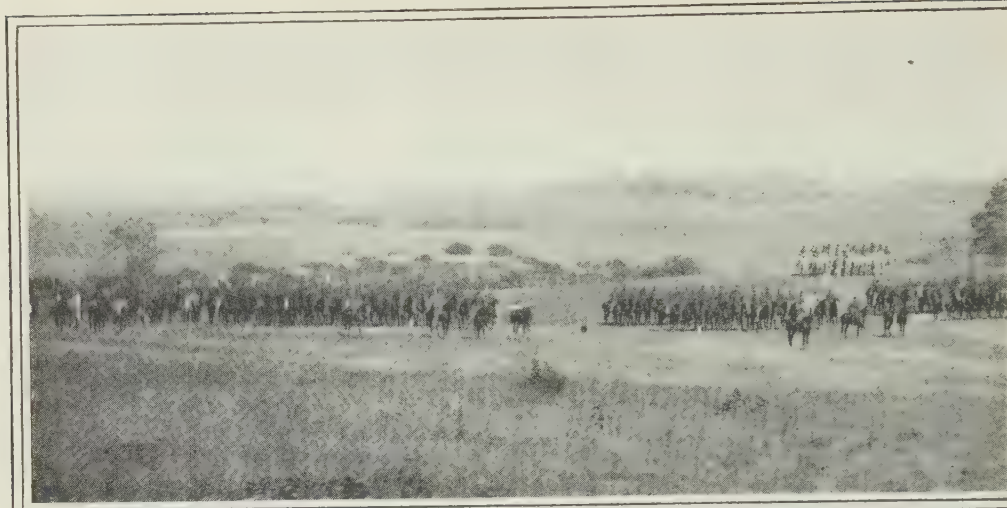
On the other hand, it is held by the principal cavalry leaders who have seen service in the field—Field Marshal Lord Roberts, Generals French, Hamil-



GENERAL JOHN BUFORD
(One of the most successful of the Federal cavalry commanders. Died December 16, 1863)

ton, and Baden-Powell (of Boer War fame), de Negrier and Langlois of France, and von Bernhardt of Germany, and others, (1) that while the method of using modern cavalry has changed, the arm itself is more important in war than ever; (2) that its scope is broadened; (3) that its duties require a higher order of intelligence and training of its personnel—officers and men; and (4) above all, that it is quite possible to turn out a modern horse-soldier, armed with saber and rifle, who will be equally efficient, mounted or dismounted.

Still the battle of the



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THIRTEENTH NEW YORK CAVALRY ON PARADE

pens goes merrily on—the champions of the *arme blanche* or of the rifle, alone, on the one side, and the defenders of the combination of those weapons on the other. The next great war will demonstrate beyond peradventure the practical value of “the American idea,” as it is sometimes called.

OUR CAVALRY ANTECEDENTS

A glance at the conditions affecting the use of mounted troops in this country prior to our Civil War may be instructive; it will show that eighty-five years of great and small wars, Indian fighting and frontier service, proved to be a training school in which the methods followed by Sheridan, Stuart, Forrest, and others of their time had been really initiated by their famous predecessors—Marion, the “Swamp Fox,” and “Light Horse Harry” Lee of the War for Independence, Charlie May and Phil Kearny of the Mexican War, and those old-time dragoons and Indian fighters, Harney and Cooke.

Before the Revolution of 1776, the colonists were generally armed with and proficient in the use of the rifle—of long barrel and generous bore—and familiarity with the broken and wooded surface of the country made them, from the start, formidable opponents of the British, who both in tactical methods and armament were very inferior to the American patriots. Fortescue, an English writer, records the fact that “at the time of the Lexington fight there was not a rifle in the whole of the British army, when the war began, whereas there were plenty in the

hands of the Americans, who understood perfectly how to use them.”

In the mountains of Kentucky and Tennessee, bodies of horsemen similarly armed were readily formed, who, if ignorant of cavalry maneuvers, yet with little preparation became the finest mounted infantry the world has ever seen; distinguishing themselves in numerous affairs, notably at King’s Mountain, S. C., September 25, 1780, where 2000 sturdy “Mountain Men,” hastily assembled under Colonels Sevier, Shelby, and Campbell, surrounded and almost annihilated a force of 1200 men (120 being regulars) under Major Ferguson of the British army. Marion the partisan led a small brigade of mounted infantry, who generally fought on foot, although at times charging and firing from the saddle. There were also small bodies of cavalry proper, using the saber and pistol, with effect, against the British cavalry in many dashing combats.

The War of 1812 was not conspicuous for mounted operations, but the irregular warfare which preceded and followed that “difference” with the mother country further demonstrated the value of the dual armament of saber and rifle. The cavalry particularly distinguished itself in General Wayne’s campaign of 1794 against the Northwestern Indians, and again under Harrison in the historic battle of Tippecanoe, November 7, 1811. At the battle of the Thames, October 5, 1813, a decisive charge made by a regiment of Kentucky cavalry against a large force of British and Indians was successful, resulting in the defeat of the enemy and death of the famous chieftain,



AT PROSPECT HILL, NEAR WASHINGTON, IN 1865

Tecumseh. General Jackson's campaigns (1813-14) against the Creek Indians were marked by effective work on the part of the mounted volunteers.

In 1833 Congress reorganized the regular cavalry by creating one regiment, followed in 1836 by another, called, respectively, the First and Second United States Dragoons. The First Dragoons was sent to the Southwest to watch the Pawnees and Comanches. On this expedition, it was accompanied by Catlin, the artist, who made many of his Indian sketches then. These regiments have been in continuous service ever since.

The first service of the Second Dragoons was against the Seminole Indians in Florida, and for seven years the regiment illustrated the adaptability of the American soldier to service in the field under the most trying circumstances. "There was at one time to be seen in the Everglades, the dragoon (dis-mounted) in water from three to four feet deep; the sailor and marine wading in the mud in the midst of cypress stumps; and the infantry and artillery alternately on the land, in the water, or in boats." Here again, the combined mounted and dismounted action of cavalry was tested in many sharp encounters with the Indians.

It was but a step from the close of the Florida war to the war with Mexico, 1846-47. The available American cavalry comprised the two regiments of dragoons and seven new regiments of volunteers. The regular regiments were in splendid condition. The most brilliant exploit was the charge made by May's squadron of the Second Dragoons upon a Mexican light battery at Resaca de la

Palma, May 9, 1846, which resulted in the capture of the battery and of General La Vega of the Mexican artillery. This dashing affair was afterward to be duplicated in the great struggle between the North and South.

The sphere of action, however, which had the most direct bearing upon the cavalry operations of the war was that known as "the Plains." The experience gained in the twelve years from 1848 to 1860, in frequent encounters with the restless Indian tribes of the Southwest, the long marches over arid wastes, the handling of supply trains, the construction of military roads, the exercise of command, the treatment of cavalry horses and draught animals, and the numerous other duties falling to officers at frontier posts, far distant from railroad or telegraph, all tended to temper and sharpen the blades that were to point the "path of glory" to thousands destined to ride under the war-guidons of Sheridan, Stuart, Buford, Pleasanton, Fitzhugh Lee, Stanley, Wilson, Merritt, Gregg and others—all graduates of the service school of "the Plains."

CIVIL WAR CONDITIONS

At the outbreak of the Civil War, the military conditions in the two sections were very unequal. The South began the struggle under a commander-in-chief who was a graduate of West Point, had seen service in the regular army, had been a Secretary of War (possessing much inside information as to the disposition of the United States forces) and who, in the beginning at least, was supreme in the selection of his military lieutenants,



Negative owned and copyrighted by The Patriot Pub. Co., Springfield, Mass.
GENERAL GRANT'S PONY, "JEFF DAVIS"

(Captured by a scouting party on the plantation belonging to the brother of Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederacy, during the Vicksburg campaign)

and in all matters relating to the organization and equipment of the Confederate troops.

On the other hand the North lacked similar advantages. Its new President was without military training, embarrassed rather than aided by a cabinet of lawyers and politicians as military advisers, captains of the pen rather than of the sword, "blind leaders of the blind." Mr. Lincoln found himself sur-

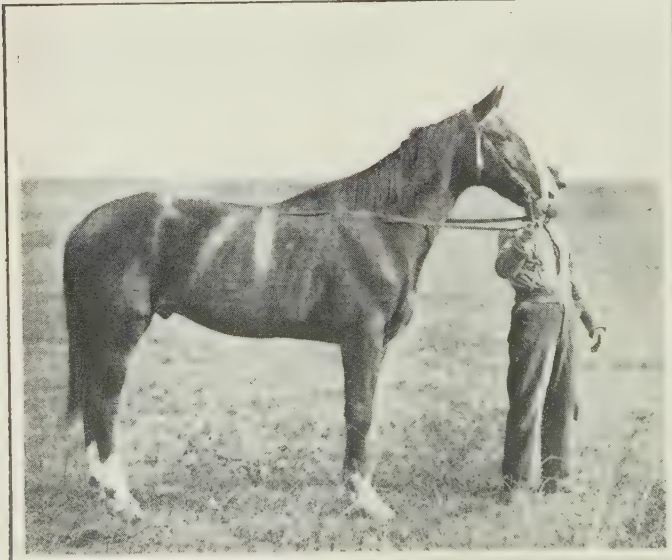
rounded by office seekers—especially those claiming high military command as a reward for political services. It is true that the Federal Government possessed a small, well-



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A TROOPER OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC, WITH HIS MOUNT

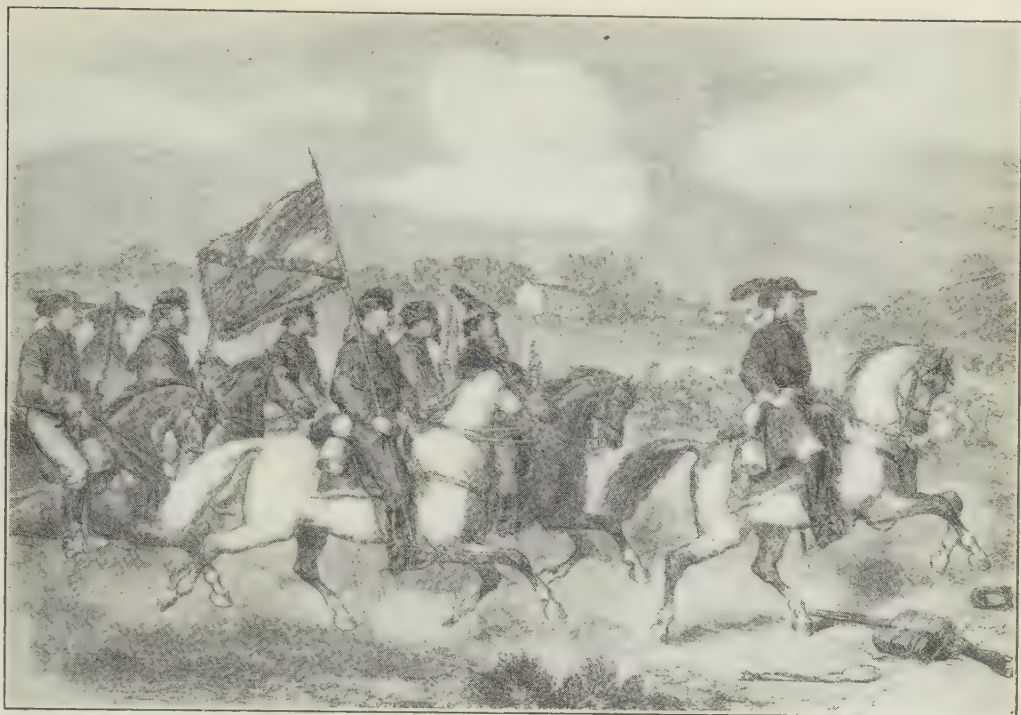
trained army, with a large proportion of the officers and nearly all of the enlisted men loyal to their colors, which, together with a few thousand organized militia, would have formed a valuable nucleus for war had it been properly utilized at the start. From its ranks some were selected who achieved distinction as leaders when not hampered by association with incompetent "generals." For at least one year, the inexhaustible resources of the North were wasted for want of competent military direction and training.

If these field conditions marked the genesis of the Civil War in all arms of service they were especially true of the mounted troops. In 1860 the "athletic wave" had not made its appearance in the United States, and out-of-door amusements had not become popular above the Mason and Dixon line. In the more thickly settled North the young men of cities and towns



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GENERAL MEADE'S HORSE, "OLD BALDY"

(This famous war horse was wounded at the first battle of Bull Run, but recovered and later was purchased by General Meade. He was at the battle of Drainesville, and took part in two of the seven days' fighting around Richmond in the summer of 1862; at Groveton; at the second battle of Bull Run; at South Mountain and at the Antietam, where he was severely wounded; at the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, and at Gettysburg, where he was again wounded. He followed the body of General Meade to the grave in 1872, and survived his master by ten years, dying in 1882.)



GENERAL STUART WITH HIS CAVALRY SCOUTING IN THE VICINITY OF CULPEPER COURT HOUSE

(From a sketch by the special artist of the *Illustrated London News*. The writer of this article was for a time a prisoner of the Confederate cavalry and vouches for the general accuracy of the drawing)

rather took to commercial and indoor pursuits; in the South the sports of a country life appealed to young and middle-aged alike and the rifle and the saddle furnished continued attractions to a large majority. So it happened that the Confederates (their President an erstwhile dragoon) had only to mobilize the cavalry companies of the militia scattered through the seceding States, and muster, arm and equip the thousands of young horsemen, each bringing his own horse and eager to serve the Confederacy.

It was not until May, 1861, that the War Department at Washington reluctantly authorized the organization of a regiment of volunteer cavalry from New York with the proviso that the men furnish the horses, an allowance being made for use and maintenance. This system applied in the South, but was soon abandoned in the North. The door once open other regiments were speedily formed, containing at least the crude elements of efficient cavalry. As a rule the men regarded the horses with mingled curiosity and respect, and passed through a purgatory of training—"breaking in," it was sometimes called—before they had acquired the requisite confidence in themselves, plus horses and arms. All too soon they were "pitchforked"

into the field, often to fall victims to some roving body of Confederates who were eager to appropriate the superior arms and equipments of the Federals.

Within a year in the rough school of war these same helpless recruits became fairly efficient cavalry, at home in the saddle, able to deliver telling blows with the saber, and to ride boot-to-boot in battle charges. During the first two years of the war the Confederate cavalry exercised a moral effect out of due proportion to its physical accomplishment. Beginning with the cry of "The Black Horse Cavalry," at the First Bull Run, so terrible to the panic-stricken Federal troops in their race to Washington and safety; Mosby's frequent dashes at poorly guarded Union trains and careless outposts, and Stuart's picturesque and gallant promenade around McClellan's encampment on the Chickahominy, in 1862 (the fame of which, like the "Charge of the Six Hundred at Balaklava," has outlived many more important cavalry achievements), the war record of the Southern horse, notwithstanding its subsequent decline and the final disasters of 1864-65, will always illumine one of the brightest pages of cavalry history.

The Gettysburg campaign, June 1-July 4,

1863, was exceptionally rich in examples of the effective use of mounted troops. Beginning with the great combat of Beverly Ford, Va., June 9th, in which, for twelve hours, eighteen thousand of the flower of the horsemen of the armies of the Potomac and of Northern Virginia, in nearly equal proportions, struggled for supremacy, with many casualties,¹ parting by mutual consent at the close of the day; closely followed by a series of daily skirmishes during the remainder of the month, in efforts to penetrate the cavalry screen which protected each army in its progress northward, culminating on the first day of July at Gettysburg. It was here that General Buford, by the masterly handling of two small brigades of cavalry, delayed the advance of a division of Confederate infantry for more than two hours, winning for himself, in the opinion of a foreign military critic,² the honor of having "with the inspiration of a cavalry officer and a true soldier selected the battlefield where the two armies were about to measure their strength." The important actions on the third day comprising that in which Gregg prevented Stuart from penetrating the right rear of the Union line (largely a mounted combat with saber and pistol) and the affair on the Emmittsburg Road on the

same day where Merritt and Farnsworth menaced the Confederate left and according to General Law³ neutralized the action of Hood's Division of infantry of Longstreet's Corps, by bold use of mounted and dismounted men, contributed in no small degree to the general result.

In the West, during the same period, the cavalry conditions were not unlike those in the East, except that the field of operations extended over five States instead of one, and that numerous bands of irregular cavalry or mounted riflemen under enterprising leaders like Forrest, Morgan, Wharton, Chalmers, and Wheeler of the Confederate army, for two years had their own way. The Union generals, Lyon, Sigel, Pope, Rosecrans, and others, loudly called for more cavalry, or, in lieu thereof, for horses to mount infantry. Otherwise, they agreed "it was difficult to oppose the frequent raids of the enemy on communications and supply trains."

Ultimately, Generals Grant and Rosecrans initiated a system of cavalry concentration under Granger and Stanley and greater efficiency became manifest. About the time of the battle of Stone's River, or Murfreesboro, the Federal horse began to show confidence in itself and in numerous encounters with the Confederates—mounted and dis-

¹ The Second U. S. Cavalry alone losing 57 per cent. (killed and wounded) of its officers engaged.

² The Comte de Paris in "The Civil War in America."

³ "Battles and Leaders of the Civil War" (N. Y.)



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"GIMLET," A WELL-KNOWN CAVALRY HORSE, ON THE RAPPAHANNOCK, IN OCTOBER, 1862



A FEDERAL CAVALRY COMPANY, DISMOUNTED

mounted—acquitted itself with credit, fairly dividing the honors of the campaign. The names of Grierson, Streight, Wilder, and Minty became famous not only as raiders but as important factors in great battles, as at Chattanooga, where the “obstinate stand of two brigades of (Rosecrans’) cavalry against the Confederate infantry gave time for the formation of the Union lines.”

During the years 1862–63, the forays of the brilliant and adventurous Morgan attracted world-wide attention. Like many similar expeditions—on both sides—these exercised

a moral effect, at least, on the region invaded. In September, 1862, Morgan threatened Ohio in a way that, repeated, later on led to his ultimate downfall. In that State the greatest alarm was felt. The people were aroused to defend their homes. In the Museum of the Military Service Institution at Governor’s Island, New York, is deposited an engraved certificate of discharge from “The Squirrel Hunters,” signed by the War Governor, Tod. It sets forth that “Cincinnati was menaced by the enemies of our Union. David Tod, Governor of Ohio, called on the



Minute Men of the State and the Squirrel Hunters came by thousands to the rescue." Accompanying this quaint document is an engraved letter of transmittal reciting, in eloquent words, the terrible things which threatened the peaceful citizens.

The most conspicuous cavalry operations of the war were those of 1864-65: Sheridan's "Richmond Raid," in which the South lost the brilliant and resourceful Stuart; the harassing flank attacks on Lee's army in advance of Grant's infantry, ending in the spring campaign at Appomattox, simultaneously with Wilson's successful "Selma Raid," marked the collapse of the war. Under most discouraging conditions the Confederate cavalry disputed every inch of territory and won the sincere admiration of their opponents.

Major McClellan, of Stuart's staff, thus impartially summarizes the situation¹:

CAVALRY CONDITIONS AT CLOSE OF WAR

The services rendered by the cavalry of the armies contending upon the soil of Virginia have not been fully appreciated by those who have as yet attempted the story of the war. During the last two years no branch of the Army of the Potomac contributed so much to the overthrow of Lee's army as the cavalry, both that which operated in the Valley of Virginia and that which remained at Petersburg. But for the efficiency of

¹ "Life and Campaigns of General J. E. B. Stuart."

this force it is safe to say that the war would have been indefinitely prolonged. From the time that the cavalry was concentrated into a corps until the close of the war, a steady progress was made in discipline, *esprit de corps* and numbers. Nothing was spared to render this arm complete. Breech-loading arms of the most approved pattern were provided, horses and accoutrements were never wanting, and during the last year of the war Sheridan commanded as fine a body of troops as ever drew sabers.

On the other hand two causes contributed steadily to diminish the numbers and efficiency of the Confederate cavalry. The Government committed the fatal error of allowing the men to own their horses, paying them a per diem for their use, and the muster valuation in cases where they were killed in action; but giving no compensation for horses lost by any other casualties of a campaign. If a man's horse was killed, disabled, or worn out in the service he must return to his home to procure another; and the strength of the command was constantly reduced below its reported "effective total" by the large number of men absent upon "horse details," as they were called. Toward the close of the war many were unable to remount themselves and hundreds of such dismounted men were collected in a useless crowd which was dubbed "Company Q." The second cause was the failure or inability of the Government to supply good arms and accoutrements. Our breech-loading arms were nearly all captured from the enemy and the same may be said of the best of our saddles and bridles. From these causes, which were beyond the power of any commander to remedy, there was a steady decline in the numbers of the Confederate cavalry and as compared with the Federal cavalry a decline in efficiency.

THE AMERICAN CAVALRY METHOD

THE author of the foregoing article, General Rodenbough, is himself a distinguished veteran of the cavalry service in the Civil War, and has given much study to the lessons to be derived from that service. Ten years after the close of the war, in his book entitled "Everglade to Canon" (New York, 1875) General Rodenbough expressed himself as follows:

Put improved small arms in the hands of such men as repulsed a part of Lee's infantry at Cold Harbor and Five Forks and upon more than one occasion in the Shenandoah, and are they not a very respectable substitute for foot-troops? Mount the same men and behold the active, wiry, irresistible cavalry which, under Buford, Gregg, Torbert, Merritt and Custer on the one hand, and Stuart, Fitz Lee, Hampton and Robertson on the other, were, during the four years of war, by turns victorious.

Instead of losing its prestige and importance as an auxiliary in modern warfare, it has arrived at that period in its development when it is absolutely essential to the completeness of great military operations. Nay, we may go further and say that, with a large and well-organized cavalry command

and a fair proportion of horse artillery, a good general may go anywhere in a hostile country, accomplishing by its aid the greatest results.

In comment on this publication the late General Merritt, one of the ablest cavalry leaders of his time, spoke of it as "a really wonderful prediction and another proof that our experience during the Civil War was a lesson that needs study and that what we learned then is well worth while preserving and improving."

Twenty-eight years later Lord Roberts, in an official memorandum as Commander-in-Chief of the British army, said:

In America, on the other hand, the cavalry leaders very early recognized the increase of power to be gained by arming their men with a rifle in addition to the saber. Their tactics against both cavalry and infantry were a combination of fire and shock, and their achievements were far more brilliant than those of the Germans in 1870. . . .

It was only by adopting these tactics that Sheridan's cavalry brought about the dispersal of Early's army on the Shenandoah, in 1864, and the surrender of Lee's army at Appomattox, in 1865.

THREE CENTURIES OF THE ENGLISH BIBLE

SOCIAL AND LITERARY INFLUENCE OF THE KING JAMES VERSION

BY J. PATERSON SMYTH

[In the preparation of this article, Dr. Smyth has made free use of material from his book, "How We Got Our Bible," published and copyrighted in this country by James Pott & Co. These portions are reproduced by permission.]

THIS year we celebrate the tercentenary of the so-called "Authorized Version" of the Bible. This wonderful book, by the bond of a common heritage, unites practically the whole English-speaking race throughout the world and has for 300 years exercised on English character an influence not merely religious (that goes without saying) but even social and political,—an influence that can hardly be overestimated. In spite of its defects, to which we shall refer later on, we do not hesitate to say that, compared with all other books, compared even with all other Bibles, it is the most noble, beautiful, and wonderful book which the world holds to-day.

The German Bible is the work of one man, Luther. The English Bible is the work of many generations of Englishmen. Caedman and Alfred, Bede and Wycliffe, Tyndale and Coverdale handed on the torch from one generation to another and, from Wycliffe's day at least, handed on the words and phrases and forms of expression which have largely influenced the making of the English language. The history of the Book for many centuries is interwoven with the national history of freedom and independence and personal religion. Therefore it is to us of the English race not only the Word of God, but also and essentially our National Book.

I

WE glance here briefly at its history. The first thing that strikes one is this fact that all the Anglo-Saxon and early English versions were mere fragmentary translations, and that their circulation was very limited. It seems pretty late to wait for Wycliffe, in the fourteenth century, to give us our first complete Bible in the people's language. But we must remember that, in the earlier days, very few people except the clergy could read and that every book had to be written in

manuscript and was therefore costly and difficult to procure. There was little or no demand for a people's Bible. It was not an open Bible that ignorant people wanted, but a church with its worship and teaching and rules of obedience. The gospel of Christ's atonement was found, not in an open Bible, but in the solemn sacrifice of the Mass. The simple instruction was given in the preaching of the local priest and, later on, in the attractions of religious mystery plays. It is rather an anachronism to talk of the need of the open Bible in those early ignorant days. The early translations were therefore mere fitful efforts and dealt only with small portions of Scripture.

It is now 1200 years since on a winter night a poor Saxon cowherd lay asleep in the stable of the famous Abbey of Whitby. Suddenly, says the legend, a heavenly glory lighted up the stable. One appeared who had been cradled in a stable 600 years before. "Sing, Caedmon," he said. "Sing some song to me." "What shall I sing?" "The beginning of created things." Thus begins the story of Caedmon's Paraphrase, through which for many years our rude ancestors heard the Bible story sung to strains of the old Saxon minstrelsy. In the eighth century Eadhelm, Bishop of Sherborne, translated the Psalms into Anglo-Saxon and Egbert, Bishop of Holy Island, gave a translation of the Gospels still to be seen in the British Museum. But they were soon overshadowed by a greater contemporary.

It was the eve of Ascension Day, A. D. 735, and in his quiet cell in the monastery of Jarrow the aged Bede lay dying. We have a touching story of his deathbed in an epistle from his disciple Cuthbert. "Our father and master whom God loved had translated the Gospel of St. John as far as 'what are these among so many' when he began to suffer much in his breath and we besought him to

rest." The letter goes on affectionately describing the working and resting till the last sentence of the Gospel was dictated. "It is finished, master!" cried the exultant scribe. "Aye, it is finished," echoed the dying saint. "Now lift me up, place me at that window where I have so often prayed to God," and with a joyous commendation of his soul to God the old man passed into the unseen land.

Such were the men who, in the early days of England, were counted fit to give God's word to the people. After the Venerable Bede came King Alfred and Archbishop Aelfric. As far as we can judge from existing manuscripts the translations were intended for reading in church in the people's simple tongue. A centurion was a "hundred man"; the man with the dropsy "the water-seoc man"; the Sabbath was the "reste daeg"; the woman cast her mites "into the gold-hoard."

II

WE pass over 600 silent years. After the early Anglo-Saxon versions comes a long pause in the history of Bible translation. Amid the disturbance resulting from the Danish invasion there was little time for thinking of translations and manuscripts; and before the land had fully regained its quiet the fatal battle of Hastings had been fought, and England lay helpless at the feet of the Normans.

In the fullness of time when the language blended of Norman French and Saxon was ready, came the man. John Wycliffe was one of the distinguished "Schoolmen," a student and learned professor at Oxford up to 1366. In his quiet parsonage at Lutterworth, with the sounds of the fierce storms raging around him, he labored at the great work of his life till the whole Scriptures had been translated into the "moder tonge," and England received her first complete Bible in the language of the people.

This honor is sometimes denied to Wycliffe, chiefly on the authority of Sir Thomas More. But More gives no means of testing his statement and the fullest investigation gives no trace of anything but separate fragments before Wycliffe's time. A few partial translations had been accomplished in the previous century by Scorcham, Rolle of Hampole, and others, but they were little known. Wycliffe's constant complaint is that there is no Bible in English.

Like all the earlier English translations, Wycliffe's Bible was based on the Latin Vulgate of St. Jerome; and this is the great de-

fect in his work, as compared with the versions that followed. He was not capable of consulting the original Greek and Hebrew even if he had access to them—in fact, there was probably no man in England at the time capable of doing so; and therefore, though he represents the Latin faithfully and well, he of course handed on its errors as faithfully as its perfections. But, such as it is, it is a fine specimen of fourteenth century English. He translated not for scholars or for nobles, but for the plain people, and his style was such as suited those for whom he wrote—plain, vigorous, homely, and yet, with all its homeliness, full of a solemn grace and dignity, which made men feel that they were reading no ordinary book.

III

AFTER Wycliffe there is an interval of a hundred years before we come to the next great version of the Bible. But with Wycliffe's days this toilsome manuscript period closes forever. The printing press had come to revolutionize the history of the Bible and the history of the world. And with the printing press came also the revival of Greek learning in Europe. "Greece rose from the grave with the New Testament in her hand." And so it was now possible to translate the New Testament directly from the original, and when translated to produce it in enormous quantities at a trifling cost. Thus came a mighty change in the history of the Bible.

At this crisis came forth the man who was to use those new advantages with great results in the service of the Word of God. In 1483, the year after the birth of Luther and a hundred years after the death of Wycliffe, William Tyndale was born. He was a distinguished student at Oxford and afterwards moved to Cambridge, where he met with Erasmus, the greatest Greek scholar of the day, who had just completed his Greek Testament from a comparison of ancient manuscripts. Tyndale quickly made himself familiar with this Greek Testament, and by God's grace the impulse came strongly on him to translate it into English. Wycliffe's Bible, being in manuscript, had but a small circulation, and so many copies had been destroyed that it had comparatively little influence at this time. So the need for a Bible was very great, especially as the people were becoming fitted to read it.

We cannot follow the interesting story of Tyndale's disappointment in England, where he perceived there was no chance of attempt-

ing his work, then his flight to Hamburg, and again to Worms amid repeated risks and failures. Suffice it to say that in 1526 the printed New Testament began to arrive in England.

tenderness and majesty, its Saxon simplicity," and its smooth, beautiful diction that it has been but little improved on since. Every succeeding version is little more than a revision of Tyndale's. Even the Authorized Version owes to him chiefly its wonderful ease and beauty.

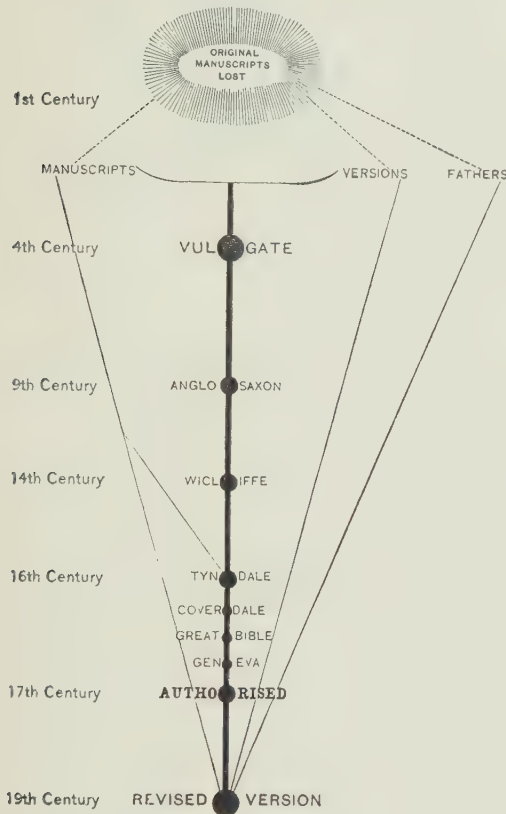
After Tyndale came the Coverdale and Mathews Bibles, being attempts to produce under proper authority a Bible to supersede Tyndale's unauthorized version. But they are really Tyndale slightly revised. Then came the Great Bible, a copy of which, by royal command, was chained in the churches for the people to read. Then the Puritan exiles at Geneva issued the Genevan Bible, a very good and convenient and popular work, only marred by the bitterly anti-church notes in the margin. Of these we have no space to speak in detail. We come now to the great book whose tercentenary we are celebrating—the Authorized Version of 1611.

IV

In January, 1604, a conference of bishops and clergy was held in the drawing-rooms of Hampton Court under the presidency of the King (James I). Among other subjects of discussion there was rather unexpectedly brought up that of the defectiveness of the current translations of Scripture. England had then three different versions. The Genevan was the favorite of the people in general, the Bishop's Bible was supported by ecclesiastical authority, while the "Great Bible" of Henry VIII might still be seen chained to a desk in many of the country churches. But none of these was likely to be accepted as the Bible of the English nation.

There was, therefore, plainly a need for a new version which, being accepted by all, should form a bond of union between different classes and rival religious communities. Yet when Dr. Reynolds, the leader of the Puritan party, put forward such a proposal at the Conference, it was very coldly received, Bancroft, bishop of London, seeming to express the general feeling of his party when he grumbled that "if every man had his humor about new versions, there would be no end of translating." Probably the fact of the proposal having come from the Puritans had also some effect on this conservatism of the bishops; in any case it seemed that the project must fall through for want of their support.

There was one man in that assembly who looked with special favor on the new proposal, and that man was the royal pedant who pre-



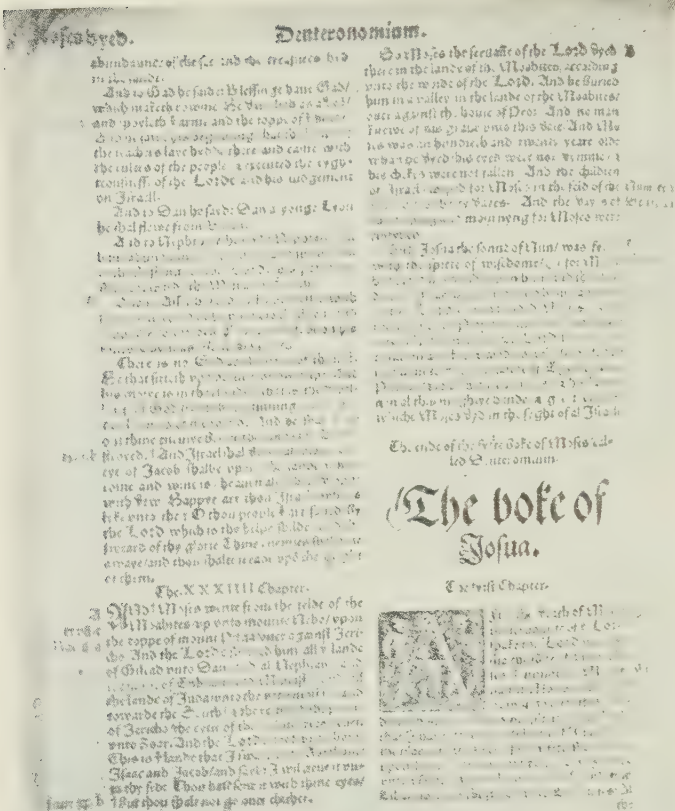
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DIAGRAM SHOWING THE HISTORY OF THE "AUTHORIZED" AND "REVISED" VERSIONS

The leaders of the English Church set themselves against its circulation, partly because it was an unauthorized translation, partly because Tyndale, like Wycliffe before him, had become strongly anti-clerical, and in the marginal notes of his Testament hit out pretty sharply against the church and its rulers.

Long years he had labored for this, a weary exile in a far-off German town, but now when it came his heroic life was over. On Friday, the sixth of October, 1536, he was strangled at the stake and then burned to ashes, fervently praying with his last words, "Lord, open the King of England's eyes!"—a prayer that was nearer to its answer than the martyr deemed.

Tyndale's translation is not only the first which goes back to the original tongues, but it is so noble a translation in its "mingled



COVERDALE'S BIBLE
(Edition of 1537)

sided. A Bible translation made under his auspices would greatly add to the glory of his reign, besides which, to a man whose learning was really considerable, and who was specially fond of displaying it in theological matters, the direction of such a work would be very congenial. Fifty-four learned men were selected impartially from High Churchmen and Puritans, as well as from those who, like Saville and Boys, represented scholarship totally unconnected with any party. And in addition to this band of appointed revisers, the king also designed to secure the coöperation of every Biblical scholar of note in the kingdom. The Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge was desired to name any fit man with whom he was acquainted, and Bishop Bancroft received a letter from the king himself, directing him to "move the bishops to inform themselves of all such learned men within their several dioceses as, having especial skill in the Hebrew and Greek tongues, have taken pains in their private studies of the Scriptures for the clearing of any ob-

scurities either in the Hebrew or the Greek, or touching any difficulties or mistakings in the former English translations, which we have now commanded to be thoroughly viewed and amended, and thereupon to earnestly charge them, signifying our pleasure therein, that they send such their observations to Mr. Lively, our Hebrew reader in Cambridge, or to Dr. Harding, our Hebrew reader in Oxford, or to Dr. Andrews, Dean of Westminster, to be imparted to the rest of their several companies, that so our said intended translation may have the help and furtherance of all our principal learned men within this our kingdom."

An admirable set of rules was drawn up for the instruction of the revisers, directing amongst other things that the Bishops' Bible should be used as a basis, and departed from only when the text required it; that any competent scholars might be consulted about special difficulties; that differences of opinion should be settled at a general meeting;

that divisions of chapters should be as little changed as possible, and marginal references should be given from one scripture to another; and last, but by no means least, that there should be no marginal notes, except for the explanation of Hebrew and Greek words.

Never before had such labor and care been expended on the English Bible. The revisers were divided into six companies, each of which took its own portion, and every aid accessible was used to make their work a thorough success. They carefully studied the Greek and Hebrew; they used the best commentaries of European scholars; the Bibles in Spanish, Italian, French, and German were examined for any help they might afford in arriving at the exact sense of each passage; and when the sense was found, no pains were spared to express it in clear, vigorous, idiomatic English. All the excellences of the previous versions were noted, for the purpose of incorporating them in the work, and even the Rhemish (Roman Catholic) translation was laid under contribution for some

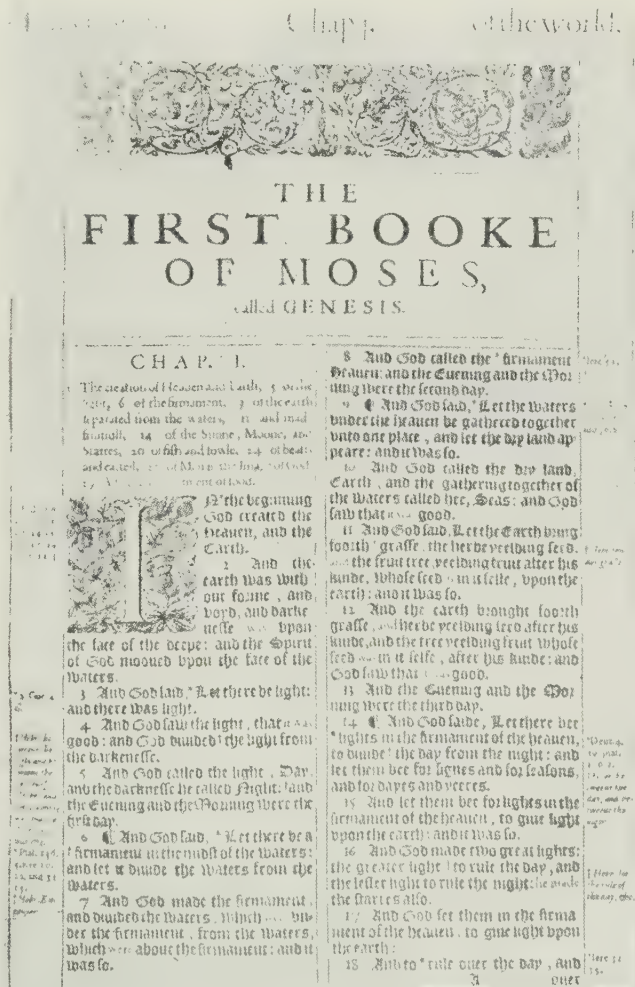
expressive phrases which it contained. "Neither," says Dr. Miles Smith, in the preface, "did we disdain to revise that which we had done, and to bring back to the anvil that which we had hammered, fearing no reproach for slowness nor coveting praise for expedition"; and the result was the production of this splendid Authorized Version of which Englishmen to-day are so justly proud.

For more than two centuries English Churchmen and English Protestant writers of all religious bodies have spoken of it in terms of almost unanimous praise—its "grace and dignity," its "flowing words," its "masterly English style." Even a Roman Catholic divine, Dr. Geddes (1786), declares that "if accuracy and strictest attention to the letter of the text be supposed to constitute an excellent version, this is of all versions the most excellent." And an almost touching tribute is paid it by one who evidently looked back on it with yearning regret, after having exchanged its beauties for the uncouthness of the Roman Catholic version.

"Who will say," writes Father Faber, "that the uncommon beauty and marvellous English of the Protestant Bible is not one of the great strongholds of heresy in this country? It lives on the ear like a music that can never be forgotten, like the sound of church bells, which the convert scarcely knows how he can forego. Its felicities seem often to be almost things rather than words. It is part of the national mind, and the anchor of the national seriousness. Nay, it is worshipped with a positive idolatry, in extenuation of whose fanaticism its intrinsic beauty pleads availingly with the scholar. The memory of the dead passes into it. The potent traditions of childhood are stereotyped in its verses. It is the representative of a man's best moments; all that there has been about him of soft, and gentle, and pure, and penitent, and good speaks to him forever out of his English Bible. It is his sacred thing, which doubt never dimmed and controversy never soiled; and in the length and breadth of the land there is not a Protestant with one spark of religiousness about him whose spiritual biography is not in his Saxon Bible."

V

If the Authorized Version is so admirable a production, why should we want any further versions? Because (1) we now have access to many ancient manuscripts and versions and quotations from the early Fathers which were not accessible in 1611. Because (2) the whole science of textual criticism which teaches the value and best methods of dealing with these documents has entirely sprung up since. Because (3) more accurate scholarship enables us better to distinguish delicate shades of meaning in the original tongues. And lastly (a reason much more important than is generally supposed) because in the natural growth of the English language some very important



words in the Authorized Version have largely changed their meaning since.

For this and all the other reasons mentioned the obligation still rests on our Biblical scholars which Tyndale imposed on those of his own day "that if in any place the version has not attained unto the very sense of Scripture or has not given the right English word that they should put to their hands and amend it remembering that so is their duty to do."

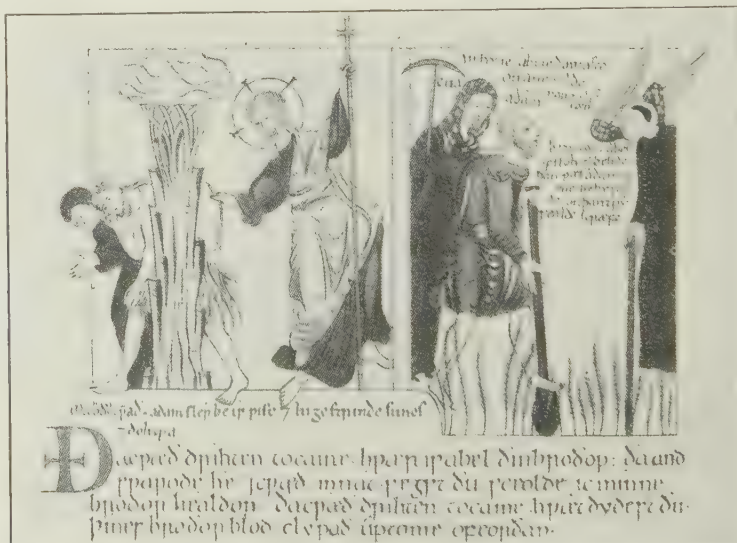
Hence the new Revised Version of 1880. It ought to have been a great success. It had more in its favor than any previous version: the very flower of English scholarship, the critical results of a century of study of the original text, different schools of thought represented to avoid all risk of even unconscious theological bias. And to make assurance doubly sure, here at the other side of the Atlantic a similarly constituted company coöperated, criticizing the work and suggesting emendations, so that nearly a hundred of the ripest scholars in England and America had to do with this revision.

And yet after thirty years we have to say that the beautiful old Authorized Version, with all its defects, is fully holding its ground, selling every year ten times the number sold of the Revised Version.

The old version holds the ground not only by the familiarity of its phrases but by its wonderful charm. It is universally accepted as a literary masterpiece, as the noblest and most beautiful book in the world. The new version is more valuable, more accurate, more

scholarly. But it avails not. It lacks the literary charm. The verdict of the people is "The old is better." Yet it is only fair to say that much of the changes objected to, and much of what is called defective style, comes from the scholarly desire to be very accurate. The Revised Version places the reader, as far as an English version can do, on a level with the reader of the original languages. A scrupulous attention to the force of the Greek article, the different tenses of verbs and the delicate shades of meaning in particles and prepositions, accounts for many of the minor changes. Then the revisers determined that the same Greek word must always be represented by the same English word, which is a loss in smoothness and beauty of diction, but a great gain in accuracy. For example, we have in the Authorized Version "comforter" and "advocate"—"eternal" and "everlasting"—"count" and "impute" and "reckon"—as respectively renderings of the same Greek word, while on the other hand, to take only one example, the word "ordain" is made to stand for ten different words in the original Greek. This makes smoother reading, but it is certainly not accurate scholarship.

On the whole we may assume that far into the twentieth century the Authorized Version will still remain the popular Bible. The version that is to supersede it will come some day, but when it does it will have more than accurate scholarship. It will have in some degree at least the literary charm and beauty which for 300 years has brought the whole English world under the spell of the old Bible.



ARCHBISHOP AELFRIC'S ANGLO-SAXON BIBLE (ELEVENTH CENTURY)

EUROPEAN WATERWAYS,—THEIR LESSONS FOR AMERICA

BY HUBERT BRUCE FULLER

THE decadence of American river traffic has become both a tragedy and an economic misfortune. Yet within the last few years there has arisen a general demand for the rehabilitation of waterway commerce in the United States.

Railroad rates are felt to be excessive, and the railroads themselves have been manifestly unable to meet the demands of the public at certain seasons of the year, notably in the fall, when crop movements have threatened to paralyze the transportation facilities of the nation. The railroad facilities of the country approximate only 60 per cent. of the development required for the proper and speedy handling of our freight. Despite this condition the railroads have bitterly opposed every effort to rehabilitate the waterways of the country as factors in the transportation equation. Every weapon in the arsenal of competition has been brought into requisition in the effort to throttle river boat lines. Insolent in their power and haughty in their monopoly, they have been blind to inexorable economic laws. But the demand has been insistent for the improve-

ment and maintenance of the dual system of transportation by water and by land.

EUROPE'S EXPERIENCE

The revival of interest in the problem of waterways in Europe antedated the American agitation by a generation or more. It was aroused in the first place by the excessive charges of the railroads and fostered by the conception that an harmonious and effective coöperation between the two systems of transportation—waterway and rail—would conspire to the commercial advantages of the country. Statesmen of Europe conceived the idea that commerce would increase in direct proportion to the facilities provided for transportation. In Europe the same conditions formerly existed which now prevail in the United States. The railroads combined a monopoly of opportunity with an insolent exercise of power. The excessive freight rates and the manifest inability of the railroads to cope with traffic demands, particularly at certain periods of the year, inspired an insistent demand for the restora-



BELGIUM'S SYSTEM OF STATE-OWNED WATERWAYS—"LOCK XX" ON THE MEUSE RIVER AT BRUSSELS

tion of the waterways—both natural and artificial—as effective factors in the problem of transportation.

This sentiment seems to have crystallized in the various leading countries of Europe at about the same time. It was noted that the history of waterway decadence in all countries was marked by the same general phenomena—that it was normal and a resultant incident of railroad domination. England, France, and Belgium, among other nations of continental Europe, sought to reach some practical solution of the problem by which the waterways might be restored as a co-efficient of the railroads in the transportation equation. A brief survey of the methods of restoring European waterways to their earlier estate is of practical interest as suggesting the possible solution of the transportation dilemma in the United States.

THE BELGIAN SYSTEM OF STATE-OWNED WATERWAYS

The highest pitch of perfection in inland navigation has undoubtedly been reached in Belgium. With an area of 11,373 square miles, she has a total railroad mileage of approximately 2600 miles. These railroads are almost wholly owned by the national government. Yet the principal means of transportation in Belgium is the magnificently developed canal system. The total length of the canals and navigable waterways approximates 1370 miles, of which more than 85 per cent. are owned by the state. Although there is a certain measure of competition, they are not in reality conducted in hostility to the railroads. The state railroads do not try to compete with the canals for carrying certain classes of goods which

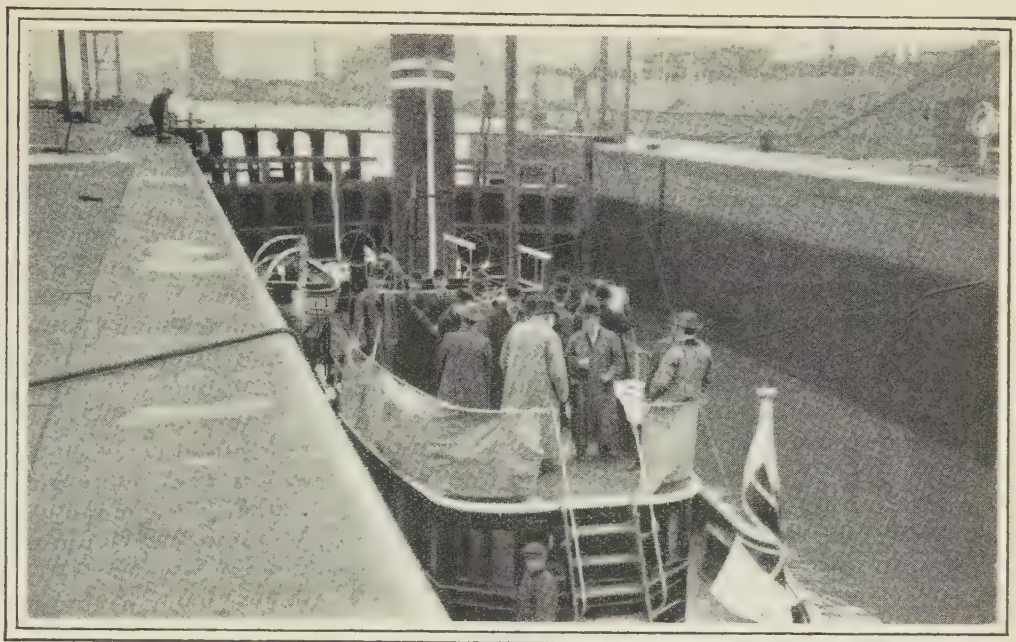
naturally belong to the waterways. There is, however, no legislation regulating the relations between rail and inland water systems of transportation. The waterways are owned by the state and tolls are levied for their maintenance upon the barges using them. The boat lines being owned by private individuals, the freight rates are controlled by competition between the various vessel owners. Thus the railroad rates are determined by the government, while the canal rates are subject to the fluctuation of individual competition.

CONNECTIONS WITH FRENCH, DUTCH, AND GERMAN WATERWAYS

Belgium possesses the most scientific and complete natural and artificial waterway system in the world. The Scheldt, the Sambre, the Meuse, and the Lys constitute a natural endowment. These natural streams have been improved and connected by a wonderful system of canals. The government has sought to bring all the manufacturing districts of the country in direct touch with the large cities of Belgium, with the seaboard, and with the manufacturing centers of other neighboring countries. Thus the waterways of Belgium have an international as well as a national importance. Important canals connect Belgium with many European countries. There are some seven waterway routes by which commerce can be transported from Belgium to France. An intimate relation exists between the Belgian and Dutch waterways. This international traffic is carried on for the most part in barges without transshipment. Many of the Belgium barges travel great distances into the interior of France and Germany.



MOVABLE DAM AND LONGITUDINAL JETTY, "LOCK XX," ON THE MEUSE RIVER AT BRUSSELS, BELGIUM



THE AMERICAN WATERWAYS COMMISSION PASSING THROUGH A LOCK ON THE HAMBURG CANAL, GERMANY

INLAND WATER TRAFFIC

The Ghent-Bruges Canal and the River Scheldt are the two principal waterways in Belgium, connecting the cities of Ghent, Bruges, and Antwerp. The distance from Ghent to Bruges is thirty-one miles by water, and the principal commodities transported on these waterways are coal, rags, paper-stock, threads, yarns, cotton, plants and miscellaneous wares and merchandise.

The inland water traffic is increasing enormously each year. The tonnage of the port of Ghent in 1908 was double that of 1900. Transportation charges on inland waterways are in every instance approximately fifty per cent. lower than on railroads.

MODERNIZED TERMINAL FACILITIES

The Belgian Government has spent about \$130,000,000 for the maintenance and improvement of her waterways since 1875. In no other country in the world are to be found such perfect water terminal and dockage facilities. All termini belong to the state. They are provided with warehouses and sheds, ample side-tracks, hydraulic and rolling electrical cranes for loading and unloading shipments.

The Ghent-Terneuzen Canal, one of the most important artificial waterways in the

country, is used principally for international traffic. Twenty miles long, ten and one-half miles are in Belgium and nine and one-half miles in Holland. Regular steamship lines now run through this canal and the North Sea between Ghent and other European ports. The locks and bridges are all worked by electricity.

Probably the most interesting comparison is between Brussels, with its rolling electric cranes and perfected terminal systems, and the port of New York City. Scarcely second to Brussels is the port of Ghent, where every facility is offered for the transfer of freight from boats to the railroads, the latter running alongside the vessels.

AN OBJECT-LESSON FOR NEW YORK

In New York, owing to the absence of railroad terminals on the active portion of the waterway front, it has been necessary to maintain an extensive and costly lighterage system in the port. It is officially estimated that the annual cost of lighterage service at the port of New York is over \$50,000,000. Further, most of the traffic to and from the piers on Manhattan Island is carried by drays. The annual drayage bill is declared to be \$35,000,000. These expenses for lighterage and drayage could probably be reduced one-half by modern terminal equipments



VIEW ON THE ELBE RIVER, GERMANY—BARGE
UNDER SAIL

such as are to be found at Ghent and Brussels. Many plans have been suggested to relieve the situation at New York,—a freight subway, an elevated belt system, and the construction of a comprehensive dock system closely articulated with the railroad terminals.

GERMANY'S USE OF HER RIVERS

The great aim of Prince Bismarck was a compact and permanent German Empire. He believed that nothing would so much contribute to this end as the improvement of transportation facilities and their control by the central government. After the Franco-German War, Bismarck set himself to the task of modernizing and extending the German waterways system. The essential dogma of the German commercial creed is that the waterways must be maintained by the state if they cannot maintain themselves.

The German canal system is based upon

the practical utilization of the great rivers, their improvement and connection by a scientific and practical system of canals.

The Rhine, the most important and the largest German river, flows through Holland at its mouth, but it is developed and maintained as a great artery of German commerce. East of the Rhine in order are the Weser, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula, all of which have been improved by the German Government and now carry an enormous and constantly increasing tonnage.

Owing to the supreme importance of the Rhine, the German Government early saw the desirability, both from a commercial and a military standpoint, of securing a connection within German territory by which boats could reach the Rhine from a North Sea German port. The solution was the Dortmund-Ems Canal, connecting with the Rhine near the Dutch border and extending northwesterly to the North Sea at Emden.

THE RHINE'S COMMERCIAL GREATNESS

The German Rhine is commercially the most important stream in the world. It furnishes a most illuminating contrast to the decadent Mississippi. The United States has expended more money in the twenty years ending in 1907 on the most important stretch of the Mississippi, 206 miles between St. Louis and Cairo, than the German central government has expended in the improvement of the Rhine from Strassburg to the frontier of Holland, a distance of 355 miles. Yet the amount of tonnage handled on this portion of the Mississippi in 1908 was 374,093 tons, while that on the Rhine in the same year was between 40,000,000 and 45,000,000 tons,—an amount from eighty to one hundred times as great.



Plaza

Plaza

Custom House

Harbor

River Rhine

THE CUSTOMS HARBOR AT DÜSSELDORF, IN CROSS-SECTION



TOWING RHINE BARGES

(These barges carry the immense coal, iron and grain traffic of the German ports)

The Elbe carries 20,000,000 tons of freight a year. The Oder River at its upper end at Breslau and Kosel, even in these shallow reaches, carries 3,500,000 tons of freight a year. This little river carries more traffic each year than the entire Mississippi. The reason is that the German people use sane methods, modern barges and towboats, and efficient terminal handling apparatus.

The traffic on the Rhine is largely through traffic, such as coal and iron ore coming in at Rotterdam and carried by barges destined for the furnaces at Essen and elsewhere. Much of this ore is unloaded and replaced by coal at the port of Duisburg-Ruhrort, Germany. The port of Mannheim, located on the Rhine about 300 miles above the German frontier, is the largest grain-importing port in Germany. This is practically all carried on the famous Rhine barges. On the other hand, such waterway commerce as we have on American waters is almost entirely local traffic. The volume of traffic on the Rhine is not equaled by that of any inland waterway of Europe and is surpassed only by the Great Lakes in the United States. During the season of 1910

the traffic of the Great Lakes passing through the Soo was 56,705,967 tons.

BERLIN AS A CANAL CENTER

The city of Berlin is to-day the center and market-place of a labyrinth of canals and canalized water courses. The Spree and Havel, with their network of canals reaching to the Elbe and Oder, have made possible the prosperity of modern Berlin. These rivers and tributary and connecting canals are at all times crowded with boats bringing



LOCK, OR NAVIGABLE PASS, OF THE RHINE RIVER, GERMANY

the coal and briquettes of Silesia, timber, stone, bricks, lime, fruit, and other heavy freights from the interior, and give Berlin direct water communication with Hamburg and Stettin. Modern Berlin, with its 2,000,000 inhabitants and its vast industries, would never have been possible except for the combination of natural and artificial water courses which have given easy and cheap transportation for fuel, building, and other raw materials. The Maerkischen Wasserstrassen, or marsh canals, which lead from the Oder and the Elbe to Berlin, are none of them more than six feet deep. Yet they carry 13,000,000 tons of freight each year.

In Germany it was evident that if the railroads were allowed to engage in competition with the waterways they would drive the traffic from the rivers and canals. The railroads, being owned by the state, are not allowed to carry the coarser and heavier classes of freight. These are reserved for the waterways. The result is that the railroads of Germany to-day carry 78 per cent. of the total traffic of the country while the waterways carry 22 per cent.

THE KIEL SHIP CANAL

One of the most important of the recent waterway ventures of Germany is the Kaiser-Wilhelm or Kiel Canal, fifty-three miles in length, connecting the North Sea with the Baltic. By this canal vessels bound from the English Channel to the Baltic avoid navigating the narrow waters about Den-

mark and save a distance of 200 miles. The canal can now accommodate vessels of the largest class, but is being deepened still further in view of the increasing size of war vessels. In constructing this canal the commercial aspect was merely incidental to its military and strategic importance.

FRENCH WATERWAY ENTERPRISE

The French waterway system possesses the same general characteristics as those of the other continental nations. The rivers are improved and united by canals. The main arteries of the French system are the Loire, the Rhone, the Seine, the Dordogne, and the Garonne, together with their navigable tributaries.

Like Germany, France had come to realize the importance of waterways as an aid to railroads in the transportation of commerce. Despite the financial depression resulting from the disastrous Prussian War, France at once undertook an ambitious and expensive plan of improving its natural and expanding artificial waterways. Next to Belgium and Holland, a larger proportion of all traffic is carried by internal waterways in France than in any other European country. In France the water tonnage is about 25 per cent. of the gross tonnage of the country.

The greatest waterway enterprise which France has undertaken is that connecting the Mediterranean with the Bay of Biscay across the southern part of the country. This canal promises to answer no less for military than for commercial purposes.



THE NEW CITY HARBOR AT DORTMUND, GERMANY
(Equipped with modern freight-handling apparatus)



ELECTRIC MOTOR CAR TOWING BOATS ON THE TELTOW CANAL, NEAR BERLIN, GERMANY

THE SEINE,—PARTLY RIVER, PARTLY CANAL

There is in France no other trunk-line waterway so important as the River Seine between Havre and Paris, a distance of 231 miles by river and 142 miles by rail. This river, connecting not only Paris but the richest and most fertile portions of interior France with the seaport of Havre, is a striking example of a waterway in which the services of canal and river are directly combined. At Havre and from that port to Rouen it has the maritime aspect; from Rouen to Paris it is the river; beyond Paris for approximately 120 miles it is the canal or canalized river to Mery-sur-Seine, the head of its navigation. Its total navigable length is 345 miles (563 kilometers). The work on the Seine itself has involved a total expenditure of \$25,000,000.

While it is true that the railroad rates and the rates on the canals and rivers of France are fixed by the government and hence do not show the results of natural competition, it is interesting to study the rail and water rates between Paris and Havre; for example, flour by water \$1.93 per ton, by rail \$1.93; grain by water \$1.93, by rail \$1.93; lumber by rail \$1.64, and \$1.54 by water; wine \$4.05 by rail and \$3.47 by water. This traffic all passes via the Tancarville Canal.

The work on the Seine, together with the construction of the great Eastern Canal (Canal de l'Est), was undertaken shortly after the establishment of the Republic upon

the overthrow of Napoleon III. This Canal de l'Est is only nominally a canal. It includes the improved sections of the Meuse and Saone connected by canal. The entire route is 268 miles and the work cost about 100,000,000 francs (\$20,000,000).

From Paris traffic from the northern provinces and Belgium goes through the Seine, as does the traffic intended for the west via Rouen and Havre. The traffic of the Seine has trebled within the last fifteen years. The waterways of northern France handle the export and import business to and from Belgium, Holland, and Germany as well as other foreign countries reached through the French ports along the English Channel.

THE RHONE MADE NAVIGABLE

The Rhone River in southern France presents an ideal type of the canalized river. Rising in the Swiss Alps and running nearly south, through southwestern France into the Gulf of Lyons, its numerous rapids and swift current made navigation impossible during the greater part of the year. This stream presented the most difficult problem of France to the waterway engineers. The water of the Rhone has been confined in a narrow channel deepened by longitudinal dams. In order to conserve the supply and reduce the current, transverse dams have been employed where needed. By this important piece of work a river which was naturally almost worthless for navigation has been converted into an important waterway.



KASAN PASS, DANUBE RIVER

RUINOUS RAILROAD COMPETITION

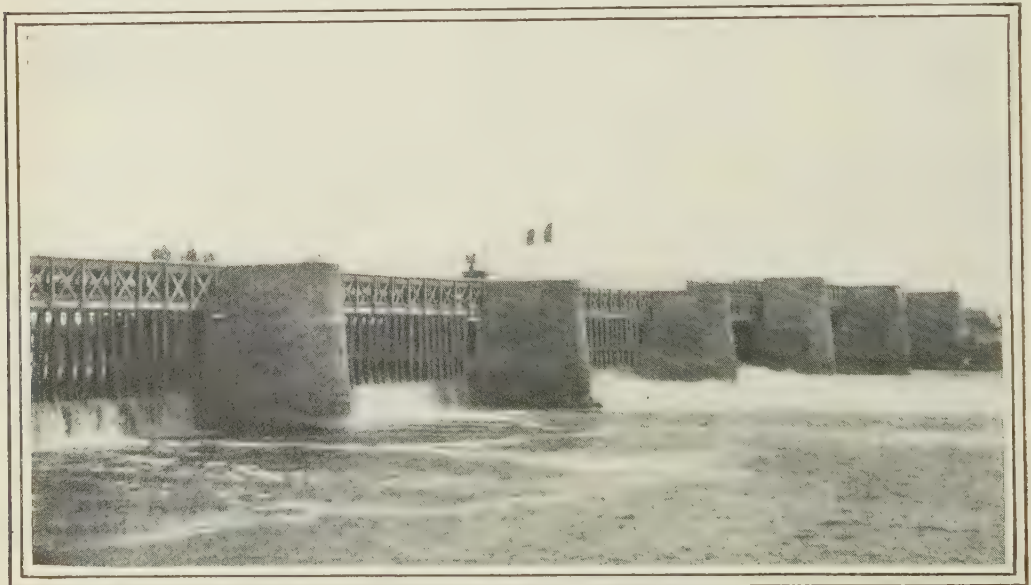
In Germany and Belgium the active competition of railroads with waterways is regulated and restrained by government ownership of the railroads. In France the situation is controlled by legislation, and for carrying certain classes of freight particularly adaptable to the waterways the railroads are compelled to charge 20 per cent. more than the rates charged by the boats. In this way alone were the waterways able to withstand the efforts of the railroads to drive them out of business by ruinous competitive rates. A number of years ago the Midi railroad system and the Canal du Midi engaged in a bitter competition for traffic, which ended in a complete victory for the railroad, to which the canal was at length leased. The

result was exactly the same as we have constantly seen under similar conditions in the United States,—the railroad took all the business. Pressure so strong was exerted, however, as to compel the cancellation of the lease and the canal was again opened for business.

THE DANUBE'S INTERNATIONAL TRAFFIC

No country in Europe is giving greater attention than Austria-Hungary to the problems of waterway transportation. Austria looks to the southeast for the development of her commerce. The Danube River, 1800 miles in length, and navigable from its mouth at the Black Sea well into the interior of Germany, is one of the most important streams in the world by reason of its length, the volume of water, and its economic and military significance. Beyond the German frontier, the Danube is connected with the Rhine by an efficient canal. The statesmen of Austria look to a future when the Danube will be the highway which will carry the commerce of Austria to Bulgaria, Servia, Turkey, Greece, and even Russia, Asia Minor, and the Far East. The Mississippi, of the United States, and the Yangtze, of China, alone compare with the Danube.

During the last half-century Austria has expended rather more than \$100,000,000 upon river improvement. At the beginning of the present century a further scheme



DAM ON THE SEINE RIVER, NEAR PARIS

of waterway expansion and improvement was inaugurated at an estimated cost of \$50,000,000 additional. The greatest obstacle to the navigation of the Danube is at Orsova in southeastern Hungary near the border line of Roumania. The river here passes through a series of rapids and cataracts with a swift and dangerous channel studded with a remarkable formation of rocks known as the "Iron Gates." At this point the Hungarian Government has expended approximately \$10,000,000 for the control and improvement of the river and the works constructed are among the most remarkable of their kind ever undertaken. In twenty years the progressive waterway system of Austria-Hungary has resulted in doubling its water tonnage.

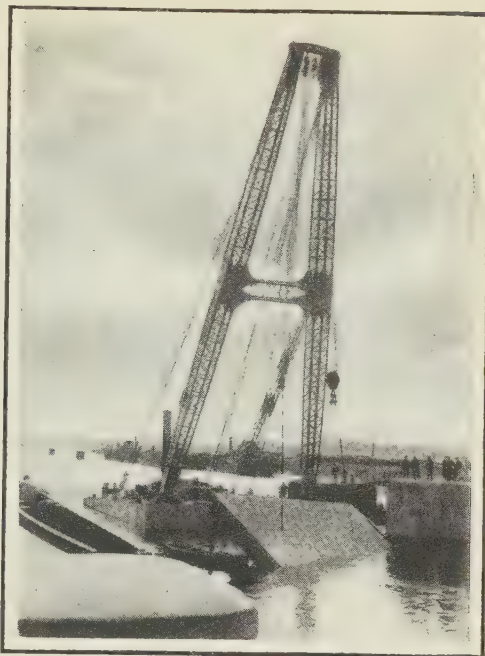
DUTCH RAILROADS NEED PROTECTION FROM THE CANALS!

In contrast with the history of Belgium, Germany, France, and Austria, Holland alone of all European countries presents a situation where the railroads require protection from the competition of the canals. Holland thus reverses the general rules which apply in all other countries. Railroad development was remarkably slow in Holland. The first Dutch railroads were short local lines while the waterway system was extensive and strongly entrenched.

At length, convinced that she could not keep pace with other European countries by her waterway system alone, the Dutch Government constructed an ambitious line of railroads connecting with the international lines of Europe. The railroads were built not with any expectation that they would be profitable as investments, but because they were considered absolutely necessary to save the country from industrial decadence. Holland is the only country in the world in which the state has provided both rail and water highways substantially free of capital charge. The railroads are now operated at a loss to supplement the waterways, which carry 90 per cent. of the traffic of Holland.

ENGLAND'S EXPERIENCE LIKE OUR OWN

Great Britain is of only negative interest in any



HYDRAULIC FLOATING CRANE ON THE NORTH
SEA CANAL

study of European waterway conditions. Before the era of railroads, canals in England were profitable, such, for example, as the Duke of Bridgewater's Canal, which laid the foundation for the industrial greatness of Manchester. With the building of railroads, the passenger traffic was lost to the waterways and the freight tonnage rapidly decreased. It was impossible to interest capital in the building and development of



THE ORANGE SLUICE, LEADING INTO THE ZUIDER SEA

(The waterways carry 90 per cent. of Holland's freight traffic)

canals. In time the canals were either bought or leased by the railroad interests and practically retired as competitors in the struggle for traffic. Great Britain to-day faces practically the same conditions as those which confront the United States, where the necessity for upbuilding the waterways is obvious and the task onerous.

LESSONS FOR THIS COUNTRY

The United States has much to learn from the experience of the leading European nations in the development of waterways. First of all, waterways cannot maintain their position as factors in the commercial equation against the unrestrained competition of railroads. We have been appropriating hundreds of millions of dollars for river and harbor improvements and then permitting the railroads to drive commerce from the improved streams by all the weapons known to industrial warfare. This is regulated in Europe and should be regulated in the United States. Meantime our river commerce is rapidly declining and our investments are well-nigh wasted.

REGULATING COMPETITION

In the Court of Commerce act, which was passed toward the close of the last session of Congress, Senator Burton, of Ohio, the greatest authority in America on waterways, secured the incorporation of the following amendment:

Whenever a carrier by railroad shall in competition with a water route or routes reduce the rates on the carriage of any species of freight to or from competitive points, it shall not be permitted to increase such rates unless after hearing by the Interstate Commerce Commission it shall be found that such proposed increase rests upon changed conditions other than the elimination of water competition.

This bit of legislation, occupying six lines upon our statute books, promises to do more to rehabilitate our waterway commerce than the expenditure of a hundred million dollars upon our rivers and harbors under the conditions which have always prevailed in the United States. For example, it has been the unbridled railroad competition and not the lack of a channel which has driven commerce from the Mississippi River.

TAKE POLITICS OUT OF RIVER AND HARBOR BILLS

The strict enforcement of this law will demonstrate the possibilities of waterway

commerce in the United States under normal conditions of equal competition. The next reform of our methods must be along practical lines. We must eliminate the "pork" from our river and harbor bills. Improvements must be made in accordance with the demands of commerce rather than of politics. Bills should be drawn in accordance with the sound principle of dealing with projects on their merits alone rather than with a view to the geographical distribution of gratuities among Congressional districts. This might be accomplished in part by giving to the President the power to veto any single item or items in a river and harbor bill or to reduce the amount of individual appropriations. The only real cure for this situation must be through a popular sentiment which will condemn the waste of public money upon worthless local ventures.

As an example of the follies which have existed under our system of waterway improvements, but which would not be tolerated in the progressive European countries, the Ohio River, a great trunk stream, has a channel of but four feet during a part of the year, while the Green River, a branch of the Ohio, has a channel of from six to eight feet. A boat drawing six feet, coming down the Green, would be unable to enter the Ohio. In an article recently published I enumerated a great many examples showing the criminal folly of our system of making political river improvements. The whim of a member of Congress, the demand of a constituency in a locality, rather than the serious engineering aspects of the case, has constituted the rule of action. River and harbor improvements in Europe are not looked upon as a medium for putting government money into local circulation.

LOCALITIES BENEFITED SHOULD CONTRIBUTE TO IMPROVEMENTS

Another feature of European waterway control which the United States should adopt is the method of local and national participation in improvements. This policy prevails particularly in France, Germany and Austria. In France interested localities are required to contribute at least one-half the total expenditure for the construction of new waterways. The government then gives to the contributing localities the privilege of levying tolls on the traffic over the new construction to reimburse themselves for the funds, principal and interest, so advanced. As soon as the debt and interest are paid the right to collect tolls ceases and is not re-

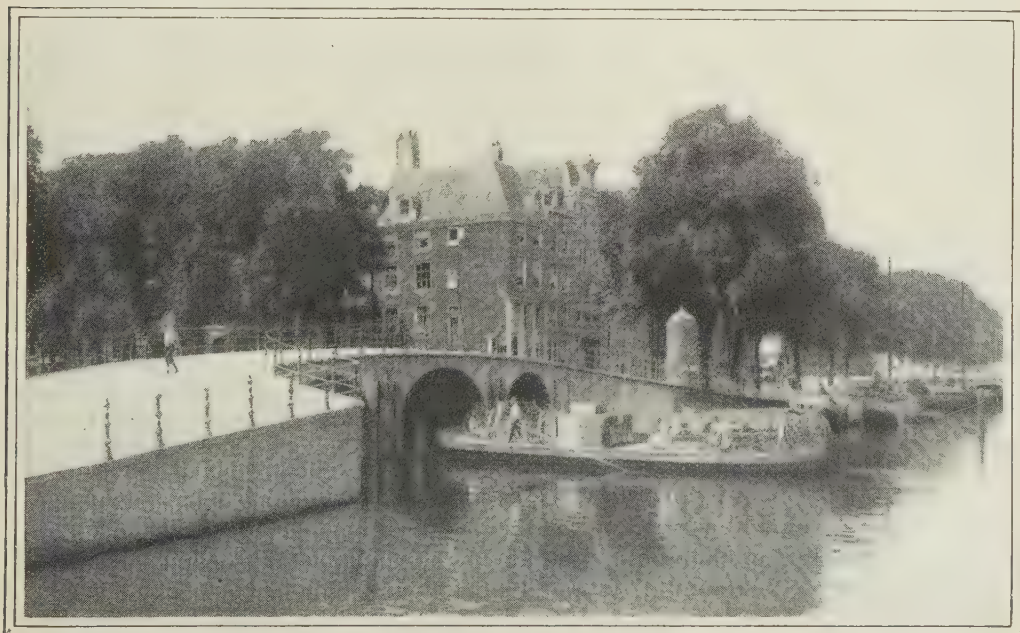


BARGES AND WAREHOUSES, MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL

newed. In Germany, the construction of inland harbors is usually left to the municipalities, corporations and other interested parties, who also own the sheds, warehouses, and docks. For the construction of new works, the provinces and corporations are required to guarantee the cost of administration, working and maintenance, and also to guarantee the yearly 3 per cent. interest on about one-third of the estimated capital,

and one-half per cent. to the sinking fund from the sixteenth year onward.

The success with which this method has been attended in Europe demands that it be adopted in the United States. In the first place, the federal Government should not impose a tax on the country at large for the benefit of a single locality. Many projects now most insistently demanded would not be advocated if the localities interested were



A HAND-PROPELLED BARGE AT AMSTERDAM, HOLLAND



ON THE GRAND JUNCTION CANAL AT PADDINGTON,
LONDON

to be taxed for their share of the cost. This method of coöperation between the central government and the specific localities has been followed with most beneficial results in Europe.

An equitable system of apportionment of cost has been adopted in the enormous work of building levees and revetments on the Theiss and Danube rivers in Austria. Briefly their system is as follows: First, the abutting property is divided into three classes,—(1) created or reclaimed land, that is, land which will be brought into existence by the proposed work; (2) land which is periodically overflowed by the river; (3) that land which is subject to frequent or occasional overflow. An estimate is then made of the cost of the improvement. From the total cost of the improvement is deducted the estimated benefit to the neighboring highways or rail-

roads belonging to the public, and the balance is assessed against the abutting property, in the proportion of six units to the first class of property, three units to the second class and one unit to the third class.

After the improvement has been completed the land is reassessed and one-half of the tax on the increment is paid into the general treasury and the other half into amortization for retiring the bonds which were issued for making the improvement.

If this practice is adopted we may look to see a great reform in our river and harbor bills. It will automatically prevent most of the jobs and steals, it will keep the land boomers from annoying Congress, and will confine appropriations to the legitimate field of improving harbors and deepening those rivers which, owing to their position, are arteries of a promising commerce. It will eliminate the "pork" from our bills, which after all is their greatest vice.

THE DEMAND FOR IMPROVED TERMINALS

From a practical standpoint the greatest handicap under which American waterways operate is the lack of suitable terminals. For example, it is reliably estimated that the terminals of the Illinois Central Railroad at Chicago compare in value with all the rest of its line to New Orleans. William H. Vanderbilt stated that the New York Central lines below the Spuyten Duyvil bridge represented more value than all the portion of their lines from the Spuyten Duyvil bridge to Rochester.



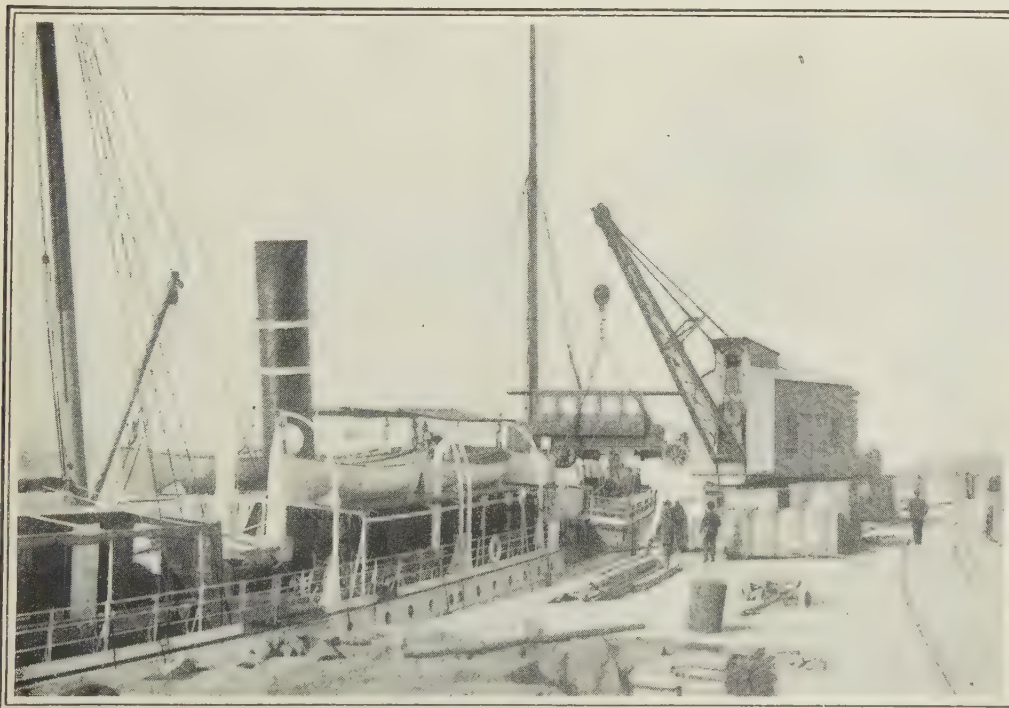
THE GLASGOW MUNICIPAL DOCKS ON THE RIVER CLYDE



THE VOLGA RIVER AT NIJNI NOVGOROD, RUSSIA

(Showing the manner of anchoring barges during the season of low water)

The Mississippi River is a typical instance of the lack of suitable waterway terminals and machinery for loading and unloading freight upon American waterways. Along this river, except at New Orleans, there are no terminal facilities. The river boats merely run their prows into the banks of the stream, throw out a gang plank, and the freight is loaded and unloaded by men instead of the rolling electrical cranes to be found in Eu-



THE ELECTRIC CRANE USED FOR HANDLING WATER FREIGHT IN FRANCE, GERMANY, BELGIUM, AND RUSSIA



BARGE AND TOW ON THE VOLGA RIVER, RUSSIA

rope, where the railroads are invariably located on terminals of waterways, permitting direct transfer between railroad and water lines.

The docks in our largest cities are for the most part under the control of railroads which refuse to share their use with waterway companies. As ex-President Roosevelt said in a public speech at St. Louis, on October 11 last, "Control your waterway terminals or the railroads will. This control is absolutely necessary for good service from the waterways." In the United States the railroads and private corporations do control the terminals.

THE WATERWAYS COMPLEMENT THE RAILROAD SYSTEM

The railroad mileage of the United States is larger than that of any European country. In Europe, the railroad mileage is only 0.5 of a mile per thousand of population, while in the United States it is 2.6 miles. Even in so thickly settled a country as Belgium the railroad mileage is only 0.7 of a mile per thousand. In Europe, in spite of the greater density of population the railroad mileage is but five miles per hundred miles of area against six miles in the United States.

The United States has been essentially a nation of railroad development and waterway decadence. In Europe we see excellent terminal facilities, in the United States an utter lack of suitable docks and terminals; on the Rhine we

meet in long towages the most highly developed types of towboats and barges; on the Mississippi the old flat-bottom stern-wheel boat which plied the stream more than thirty years ago.

Meanwhile the railroads of the country are admittedly unable to handle our enormous traffic. We need to develop our waterways as positive factors in the transportation equation. As Minister Budde, formerly Prussian minister of public works, declared, the assistance of the waterways is necessary to

the railroads in order to cope with the ever-increasing traffic. The waterway system is not opposed to the interests of the railroads; on the contrary the two systems complement each other.

The normal function of internal water transportation is to relieve the railroads of superabundant raw materials and other low-grade freights, while the railroads should carry the more precious and lucrative products of manufacture, agricultural produce, and other forms of merchandise which from their nature require prompt delivery.

The railroads of the United States now insist that they are forced to raise freight rates in order to meet present economic conditions. Thus we are unable to look for any relief from them from the present high freight rates and congestion of traffic. The only relief for which we can hope along the line of securing lower transportation rates and



A RUSSIAN FLOATING DOCK



THE HENNEPIN CANAL, BUILT BY THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AT A COST OF \$6,000,000—
AN ENGINEERING TRIUMPH AND A COMMERCIAL FAILURE

greater facilities for moving the enormous and increasing traffic of the country is by developing our waterways into efficient factors. The experience of Europe teaches the method by which this may be accomplished. We must incorporate their methods into our legislation. Only thus can we look for relief from the present conditions which seriously threaten to arrest our industrial and commercial expansion.



THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER AT MEMPHIS, TENN.

(This modern city has no wharves worthy of the name, and river freight is still loaded and unloaded over gang-planks by negroes, as in primitive times. Contrast with Glasgow dock scene on page 588)

WHY FIRE INSURANCE RATES ARE HIGH

BY CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

NO argument is needed to convince those who have to pay for fire insurance that the rates are high. The general storekeeper occupying a frame building in a row of similar structures in a small town without fire protection, who is obliged to pay $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for his insurance, is free to say that the rates are outrageous. His assertion is corroborated by the merchant who occupies a brick building in a town with some fire protection, who pays 1 per cent.; by the Ohio farmer who pays 1 per cent. for three years and by the Tennessee farmer, who pays $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the same period. City folk, no less than their country cousins, are convinced that rates are high. A certain candy factory in a ten-story fireproof building having a floor area of 7000 square feet in New York City pays $30\frac{1}{2}$ cents per \$100 on the building and $89\frac{1}{2}$ cents on the contents. A gas-fixtures factory also occupied by a single tenant in a non-fireproof building, six stories high, area 4600 square feet, pays 60 cents per \$100 on the building and 86 cents on the contents. A fireproof building eight stories high with an area of 21,000 square feet, equipped with automatic sprinklers, occupied by a paper-box factory and a printing establishment, pays 12.2 cents per \$100 on the building and 21.4 cents on the contents. Fireproof apartment houses more than ten stories high pay 10 cents per \$100 on the building and 14 cents on the contents, while an ordinary city dwelling occupied by a single tenant pays 12 cents per \$100 on the building and 16 cents on the contents.

"THE INSURANCE TRUST"

Neither is the average policy holder in any doubt about the reason why rates are high. He has heard that fire insurance is controlled by a trust; and to the popular mind that monosyllable is a full explanation of all that goes wrong. Still, a belief is not necessarily true because it happens to be widely held. Possibly a better explanation for excessive rates may be found by tracing the hundreds of millions paid annually as premiums for fire insurance to their final destination.

Superficially the facts appear to bear out

the popular idea of the reason why insurance is so costly. The New York Fire Insurance Exchange makes no secret of the fact that substantially every company admitted to do business in the State and operating in the city is included in its membership. It is no less freely admitted that the Exchange exists for the express purpose of fixing rates to be paid by policy holders and controlling the compensation to be paid to brokers and agents, both of which powers might appear to be high handed. Also, it may be learned through the Exchange that no less than 40 per cent. of the money received as premiums for insuring property in New York City is paid out for expenses. The last annual report of the National Board of Fire Underwriters shows that in 1909, 38.50 per cent. of all the premiums paid for fire insurance in the United States was consumed in expenses; in 1908, 40.47 per cent. was so consumed, while for the entire period from 1860 to 1909 the average was 36.07 per cent.

LARGE PERCENTAGE OF EXPENSE

Such an extraordinary ratio of legitimate expenses to receipts hardly seems possible to the property owner, who is likely to think, if he considers the matter at all, that the simple process of filling out the blanks in a printed policy form by an agent constitutes the whole process of fire insurance. The situation seems suggestive of scandal and corruption. Indeed, an examination of the affairs of the Phoenix Insurance Company, of Brooklyn, by the New York State Insurance Department in October, 1909, disclosed disbursements for promoting or retarding legislation which led to a general public investigation beginning in March, 1910. Results of this investigation showed that money contributed by the insurance companies doing business in the State was used to influence legislation between 1901 and 1909. Some of this money was traced to the Republican State Committee in recognition of the interest of certain committeemen at the time various bills were passed. Other portions of the fund were traced to prominent politicians and others

with influence. Many interesting details were also developed concerning "strike" bills and the log-rolling of such bills in and out of committees responsive to the influence of lobbyists and legislative agents.

But the aggregate of the legislative funds for the nine years, so far as they could be traced by the Insurance Department, was only \$150,000, or an average of \$16,500 a year, of which a part was used for the traveling expenses of individuals and delegations, retainers of regular counsel, and other perfectly proper and necessary outlays for large corporations whose welfare may be jeopardized by inept or ill-advised legislation. The amount used for improper purposes, therefore, constituted an insignificant percentage of the \$25,000,000 in premiums collected annually in New York, which seems to show that legislators must be cheap. In the present connection, though, this fact is less interesting than the failure of corrupt expenditures to account for the extremely high cost of doing business. The reasons must be sought elsewhere.

TAXATION OF COMPANIES

A liberal share of the expenses of insurance companies can be accounted for promptly under the head of taxes. Of the \$1,255,486,068 collected in fire premiums in the United States in the five years ending with 1909 no less than \$33,476,213 was consumed by taxes. This amounted to 2.67 per cent. of the gross amount of premiums collected. But as \$736,911,795 in fire losses were paid the taxes represented 6.45 per cent. of the premiums remaining after the losses had been deducted; or in other words, 6.45 per cent. of the expenses. Since insurance is nothing more nor less than a method of levying taxes in order to distribute the losses by fire, the States are simply levying taxes upon taxes, or to put it another way, adding an extra burden to that already imposed by the destruction of wealth. For it must not be forgotten that an insurance company cannot pay out what it does not take in. The taxes paid by insurance companies are simply added to the premiums paid by the policy holders.

On the theory that those who pay for insurance shall be guaranteed the protection for which they pay the insurance business has been subjected to regulation by the State governments. It has been decided by the States that the cost of regulation should be borne by the companies and paid for by the policy holders. In New York State the cost

of regulating insurance companies in 1909 was \$226,000. The corporation tax exacted from insurance companies under section 187 of the tax law in 1909 was \$1,236,973. Besides this a so-called reciprocal tax imposed upon companies of other States amounted to \$427,074. Even this is not all, for the local authorities of every municipality in the State having a fire department have the power to levy a tax of 2 per cent. on the gross premiums collected by foreign companies within the limits of the municipality. Data for all the cities in the State are not available; but in New York City this special tax amounted to \$301,577, which added to the other items makes a total of \$1,965,000. This is not all the taxes collected but only such as can be accounted for. Deducting the cost of State regulation there remains \$1,739,000, which, if left in the pockets of the policy holders, would have made a noticeable reduction in the rates.

As it not infrequently happens that a given year's business results in a net loss for all the companies, they actually pay the tax collector for the privilege of losing money. In 1893, for example, the fire insurance business of the nation showed a loss of \$10,410,102, yet the companies paid \$2,961,571 in taxes just the same. Adding the losses for the four years, 1889, 1891, 1892, and 1898, in which the balance was on the wrong side of the ledger, the aggregate loss for the five years was \$33,296,021. For these five years the taxes levied on the insurance companies amounted to \$14,554,941. Of course both the losses and the taxes had to be recouped and the only way to do it was to make the policy holders foot the bill. The same thing happened in 1906, when the San Francisco fire bankrupted some companies and pushed all the others hard. In that year \$245,387,087 was collected in fire premiums, of which \$235,290,029 went to pay losses, leaving the companies \$10,097,058 to apply toward the payment of expenses. Out of this sum \$6,525,369 was paid out in taxes. In other words the fire insurance companies that year paid six millions and a half for the privilege of achieving bankruptcy or near-bankruptcy. The survivors increased the rates in the "San Francisco advance," to reimburse them for the enormous losses. There was no other way.

MAINTENANCE OF SALVAGE CORPS

Another large part of the policy holders' money passes through the hands of the insurance companies for illogical purposes, thus helping to maintain high rates. Many of the

things the insurance companies do, collecting pay therefor from the policy holders, ought properly to be performed by the municipal or State governments. One of these items of expense is the maintenance of the salvage corps in large cities. These corps respond to fire alarms without knowing or caring whether the fire is on insured premises or not. They render important service in preventing the destruction of goods by water and smoke; they are under the orders of the fire department, and there is exactly the same reasons for supporting them at public expense as for maintaining engine and hook and ladder companies by that method. Yet the insurance companies pay the bills with the policy holders' money. In New York City the support of the salvage corps eats up 1 per cent of the expense fund.

DETECTION OF CRIMINALS AND INVESTIGATION OF MATERIALS

Another task which should be performed by the State officers who are paid for it, is that of detecting and punishing the crimes of incendiarism and arson. Yet a committee of the National Board of Fire Underwriters interests itself in the work, of course at the expense of the policy holders. Since 1873 the committee has offered rewards for the conviction of persons guilty of arson aggregating \$1,982,225; though unfortunately, only \$83,719 has been earned through 277 convictions.

Still another function which can hardly be considered as a legitimate part of the insurance business but which is performed by the companies and paid for by the policy holders, because no one else does the work as it should be done, is the testing of building materials, heating and lighting devices, and appliances for extinguishing fires, through the medium of the National Board of Fire Underwriters laboratories at Chicago. The laboratories also inspect goods, devices and materials entering into the fire hazard. Goods made in accordance with the standards of the board may have affixed the official label of the laboratories. Some idea of the extent of this inspection work may be gathered from the fact that in the year ending March 31, 1910, 16,815,920 labels were used.

The board also maintains at the expense of the policy holders a staff of some twenty men under the direction of the Committee of Fire Prevention for the purpose of investigating conditions pertaining to water supply, fire departments, and structural conditions of cities. Upwards of nine hundred cities and

towns have been inspected. The expenses of the committee in the last six years amounted to \$432,742. The Committee on Construction of Buildings, with the aid of an eminent architect, prepared a standard building code which the board recommends for adoption in all cities. More than ten thousand copies of this code have been distributed free, in addition to which the committee maintains an extensive correspondence with municipalities relative to building codes. Also the board employs a committee of consulting engineers on hazards, devices and materials. Finally, there is the Underwriters National Electric Association to formulate uniform rules to minimize the hazard of electricity. To sum up, the National Board of Fire Underwriters is very actively engaged in inculcating the principles of sound construction and in guiding the public in the selection of devices.

In other lands most of these things are regulated by laws which are enforced at public expense instead of at the cost of policy holders. Indeed, in American cities there is a pretense of performing many of these duties by public officials who are supposed to see that whatever laws designed to prevent fires may happen to be in existence are respected; but there is so much of pretense and so little of genuine efficiency about these municipal efforts that the fire insurance companies are obliged to do the work all over again, so that the policy holders, who are also taxpayers, enjoy the privilege of footing the same bill twice.

OTHER EXPENSES OF THE BUSINESS

About 5 per cent. of the premium is required for adjusters and special agents, traveling experts, and their hotel and other traveling expenses for supervising the business. Ten per cent. goes to pay the official staff at headquarters, clerks, bookkeepers, rent, advertising, postage, expressage, printing, stationery and general office expenses.

The largest single item of expense is the commission to brokers and agents, which ranges from 5 per cent. to 37½ per cent. Lest all our readers should be tempted to become insurance agents, it may be explained that the maximum commission is only paid on risks so small, scattering, and hard to get that an industrious agent cannot make a living on them exclusively. The scale of commissions is so carefully adjusted that the possible annual income that may be earned is only sufficient to induce the right sort of men

to remain in the business, agents being considered necessary evils.

THE YEARLY FIRE WASTE

The real cause of high rates is the unnecessary waste by fire, which in the last thirty-five years, exclusive of forest, mine, and marine fires, amounted to \$4,906,619,240. In 1907, a normal year, recorded fire losses were \$215,084,709, while fire defense cost \$241,401,191. The sum of the two items was equal to half the value of new buildings erected. The fire loss alone in the United States for the five years ending with 1907 averaged \$3.02 per capita per annum, while the per capita loss in six nations of Europe, including Germany and France, for the same period averaged 33 cents a year. Matters are growing worse instead of better, for while the population increased 73 per cent. between 1880 and 1909, the fire loss increased 134 per cent. These facts sufficiently explain why during the half-century ending with 1909 an average of 58.43 per cent. of premiums was required to pay losses. It also indicates the obvious way to reduce rates.

With 58.43 per cent. of premiums required to pay losses and an average of 36.07 per cent. for expenses, there isn't much left for the insurance companies. In fact, the pickings are growing scantier every year; for while the average expense ratio for fifty years is 36.07 it shows a steady growth from 31.06 for the decade from 1860 to 1870 to 39.24 in 1908 and 38.50 in 1909. Official figures gathered by the New York State Insurance Department for the eighteen years from 1891 to 1908 show that an average of only 3.06 per cent. of the premiums remained with the companies as profits each year.

HOW RATES ARE MADE

An average profit of 3.06 per cent. throughout a period of eighteen years is hardly compatible with accepted ideas of trust methods. As a matter of fact there is no such thing as an insurance trust. The instinct of self-preservation has compelled the various companies to pull together in certain specific things for the common good; but aside from these each company works out its own salvation. These specific things include the educational propaganda and the fire prevention campaign conducted by the National Board of Fire Underwriters as already indicated, the limiting of commissions and the making of rates. State rate-making seems to be im-

practicable. Texas tried it, but gave it up. Kansas tried, but the law as it now stands limits State intervention substantially to inquiries and recommendations. The National Board of Fire Underwriters tried its hand at rate-making, but abandoned the task as beyond its powers in 1888, and has since restricted its efforts to other matters of common interest.

Neither can any single company undertake to make rates for itself without inviting ruin for the sufficient reason that it cannot have in its own field broad enough experience upon which to base a rate both high enough for safety and low enough to attract business in competition with other companies.

Since conditions vary widely in different localities, so that a rate which might be equitable in Boston, for example, might be unjust either to the policy holders or the companies in St. Louis, the only way out was to create local boards in the various cities to deal with rates. This method has received the indorsement of the investigating committee of the New York Legislature, which in its report filed on February 1 expressed the belief that rate wars in fire insurance tend only to decrease the value of the indemnity purchased. On the same principle rebating should be prohibited under heavy penalties. Under the terms of several of the bills proposed by this committee, the State Superintendent of Insurance would have increased powers, including the right to define what shall be known as the "congested value districts" of all the large cities of the country, and to secure an annual report from all the companies doing business in New York, specifying the amount of their risk in such districts.

The only other changes of importance recommended by the committee were to place the rate-making power under the supervision of the State Superintendent of Insurance; to require brokers and agents to procure licenses from the insurance department instead of the exchanges; and to authorize the appointment of a fire marshal who, with two deputies, is to investigate suspicious fires and enforce regulations to prevent fires.

The New York Fire Insurance Exchange endeavors to apportion rates so that each class of risks may come as near as possible to the payment of its own losses and contribute its just proportion toward expenses, profit, and reserve accounts, distinguishing between individual risks of the same class so that proper credit will be given for variations above the standard of the average risk of that

class, and proper charges made for variations below the standard. It is an essential part of this rate-making power to enable every property owner to see why his insurance costs more or less than his neighbor's, so that the suspicion, as well as the practice, of unfair discrimination may be removed.

To the country merchant occupying a frame building with other frame buildings on both sides it is explained that the exposure risk is greater than in the case of his friend across the street who occupies a good brick building, and that he must pay for this extra risk. The country shopman or the farmer who installs a gasoline motor is made to see that he thereby increases the fire hazard which necessitates a higher rate. Iowa and Illinois farmers must pay extra because experience has demonstrated that lightning causes more fires there than in other parts of the country, while in the South, where negro labor is employed, the fire hazard is shown by experience to be greater than elsewhere. In short, the insurance companies are at pains to make clear to their patrons the fact that there are substantial reasons why rates vary widely.

City policy holders are led to see the wisdom of fire prevention when they are taxed for failure to install safeguards. For example, a certain building, fireproof, seventeen stories high, in New York City which is occupied by a number of mercantile firms would pay $24\frac{1}{2}$ cents per \$100 on the building were it not equipped with automatic sprinklers and automatic fire alarms. As it is it pays 10 cents. The top-floor tenant would have to pay \$1,533 per \$100 on his stock if it were not for the automatic sprinklers, alarms, and watchmen; but now he gets off with a rate of 70 cents.

It is also a part of the rate-making function to bring to bear every proper kind of pressure and inducement for the improvement of the hazard and the reduction of the fire waste.

So successful has this work been that Manager Robb was able to report last October that the Exchange had done almost more than any other agency both to improve the quality of so-called fireproof construction by charging for defects and encouraging, by its low fireproof building rates, the multiplication of standard fireproof structures and the breaking up of great areas of conflagration breeders.

Undoubtedly insurance rates are a great deal higher than they should be, but it is not the fault of the insurance companies. The way to reduce rates was pointed out to the National Conservation Congress at St. Paul last September by a special committee of the National Board of Fire Underwriters in the following recommendations:

1. The public should be brought to understand that property destroyed by fire is gone forever and is not replaced by the distribution of insurance, which is a tax collected for the purpose.
2. The States should severally adopt and enforce a building code which shall require a high type of safe construction, essentially following the code of the National Board of Fire Underwriters.
3. Municipalities should adopt ordinances governing the use and keeping of explosives, especially inflammable commodities and other special hazards, such as electric wiring, the storing of refuse, waste, packing material, etc., in buildings, yards or areas, and see to the enforcement of such ordinances.
4. The States should severally establish and support the office of fire marshal and confer on the fire marshal by law the right to examine under oath, to enter premises and to make arrests, making it the duty of such officer to examine into the cause and origin of all fires, and when crime has been committed requiring the facts to be submitted to the grand jury or proper indicting body.
5. In all cities there should be a paid, well-disciplined non-political fire department adequately equipped with modern apparatus.
6. An adequate water system with proper distribution and pressure should be installed and maintained. In the larger cities a separate high-pressure water system for fire extinguishing is an absolute necessity, to diminish the extreme imminence of general conflagrations.



THE PREVENTION OF INSANITY

BY HOMER FOLKS

(Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York)

AMONG the stories and traditions which make up the gossip of every hamlet and village, one of the strangest chapters is that about the man who "went crazy." The men as they talk at their work, the women in their households, and the children on their way to and from school, pass on from one to another the account of the strange doings of a man who tried to harness his team to the wagon, wrong-end foremost, or to drive into the barn without opening the doors, or who thought the angels were talking to him, or that devils were after him, or who chased children, or who unexpectedly attacked a friend. The recital usually ends with the phrase, "and they had to take him off to an asylum."

It is for many reasons unfortunate that this kindly removal of the afflicted person to a hospital in which he may be humanely cared for, protected from injury to himself or others and receive the best of medical treatment, removes him from further observation by the community. The lessons which would be learned by each community if its insane were cared for in its own sight, so to speak, would be exceedingly valuable. If people generally saw more of the insane after the first onset of the disease they would learn many things which now are known only to a few. They would learn, for instance, that most of the insane are practically harmless; that mental troubles differ greatly in degree and in kind; and that patience, kindness, and sympathy are the chief factors in healing the diseases of the mind as in healing many other ills. The seriousness of the affliction, and the burden which it imposes on the community would be more fully realized, and there would be readier appreciation of the importance of any new light thrown by science upon the nature, origin, and preventability of insanity.

It will doubtless surprise most persons to know that the number of insane persons in hospitals in the United States on January 1, 1904 (no later figures are available for the country as a whole) was not less than 150,151. This was more than double the number in 1890, which was 74,028. From 1904 to 1910 the insane in hospitals in New York alone increased 25 per cent. It is safe to say that

the insane now in hospitals in the United States number at least 200,000. These unfortunates, if gathered together in one place, would make up a city approximately the size of Rochester, St. Paul, Seattle, Denver, or Louisville. The population of the State of Delaware in 1910 is almost exactly the same as the number of insane in the United States in 1904. The population of Nevada and Wyoming in 1910 together is about equal to the population of the hospitals for the insane in the United States. The total annual cost of caring for the insane in the United States is in the neighborhood of \$50,000,000 per year. About one-sixth of the total expenditure of the State of New York is for the care of the insane.

It is, of course, entirely impossible for any one of us to appreciate such totals. If we recall the distress in any household in which insanity has developed, the sufferings of the patient, the anguish of his family and friends, the loss of his earnings, with in many cases the resulting pinch of poverty, we will acknowledge our inability to fully measure the length, breadth, and depth of the calamity in one single instance. By what process of mental arithmetic shall we multiply by the hundreds of thousands one such story of loss and suffering?

WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT THE CAUSES OF INSANITY?

If we have the least sympathy with our fellow human beings upon whom this affliction may fall directly or indirectly, or if we think of the extraordinary results in social betterment which could be had from the expenditure of this \$50,000,000 per annum, if it could be used for the common good, we must quickly see that the phrase, "the prevention of insanity" expresses a hope, the fulfillment of which would be of the utmost significance to the human race. Important, if true. Skepticism will undoubtedly be the first impression of many. Of all the ills that afflict human kind, insanity has always been regarded as the most mysterious; sudden in its onset, proceeding from no known cause, irrational, unpredictable, indefinable; only to be accounted for by the mysterious en-

trance into the human frame of devils or the influence, unseen, mysterious, but effective and terrible, of witches. All the force of tradition and instinctive feeling is against the probability of the preventability of insanity.

The writer, accustomed to visiting public institutions of all kinds for two decades, casually remarked to the medical superintendent of a large hospital for the insane which he was inspecting some two years ago, looking about at hundreds of patients, "I suppose you are as far as ever from knowing what brings all these people here."

"Not at all," said the superintendent, "we know perfectly well what brings many of them here. As to others, we can make a good guess, and as to still others, we know but little." He then detailed, in the course of two hours' conversation, something of the extent and limitations of our present knowledge of the causes of insanity. Other physicians, experienced in the care of mental disease, were questioned and a surprising agreement was found. All of the physicians connected with hospitals for the insane or having a large practice in the treatment of nervous and mental diseases, seemed to be in entire accord as to the direct, specific, unmistakable causes of certain forms of insanity. In talking about these causes they used language which the layman could understand perfectly. In speaking of certain other causes their language was involved, technical, peculiar, and left upon the layman the final impression that, perhaps, after all, they did not really know.

SERIOUS EFFORTS FOR PREVENTION

To one engaged for years in practical efforts for social betterment, it is instinctive that knowledge should be applied. If the causes of insanity are now known, it admits of no argument that, if these causes are within human control, a serious effort should be made forthwith to control them. Here and there, in New York, Connecticut, Illinois, and elsewhere, this set of facts has been recognized at about the same time, and this recognition has crystallized into definite movements for the "prevention of insanity," not of all insanity, of course, but of such insanity as is due to causes which are known and which are removable.

In New York this movement is in the hands of a special committee of the State Charities Aid Association, including men and women, laymen and physicians. Another Committee of this same association has carried on for the past three years a particularly successful

campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis, which was described in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for April, 1910. Through the voluntary contributions of individuals a fund of \$10,000 per annum for a period of three years is being collected for the prevention of insanity, or for the promotion of mental health; and an executive secretary has been at work for several months. A serious effort is being made to change the current of tradition and the attitude of the average citizen of the Empire State toward the subject of mental disease.

What, then, are some of these causes of insanity? While the layman is apt to speak of insanity as though it were some one disease, the physician instinctively refers to it in a manner which suggests a group of more or less unrelated diseases, proceeding from different causes, running different courses, differing widely as to curability, and having in common only the fact of mental disturbance.

THE REAL CAUSE OF PARESIS

One of the most dreadful of all the forms of insanity is that which is popularly known as "softening of the brain" and is known scientifically as paresis, or general paralysis. This particular form of insanity is absolutely incurable by any means now known to the medical profession. Those afflicted with it suffer gradual but complete mental and physical decay. The very substance of the brain and its appearance become changed. These unfortunates live but a few years. During the past year, 600 men were admitted to State hospitals for the insane in the State of New York, suffering from this disease,—17 per cent. of all the men who were admitted; and 263 women, or 8 per cent. of all the women admitted.

The medical profession knows that of which, to the present time, the average layman has had no intimation whatever, that this disease is in substantially every case, if not in every case, caused by an earlier disease which until just now it has been thought improper to mention in polite society and which most newspapers will not refer to, syphilis. Syphilis is a germ disease. It is usually acquired in the course of immoral habits, though one may get it innocently. Every man and boy should know that by yielding to the temptation which comes sooner or later to almost every man and boy, to go with immoral women, he is exposing himself to the probability of getting this disease, which may result years after in incurable insanity. One of the most reputable physicians in New York City, of wide experi-

ence in the treatment of insanity, vouches for the truthfulness of the following statement:

Recently, there died in one of the private institutions for the insane in this State, a man in the prime of life, who had previously had vigorous health, and was temperate, of good character, happily married, and the father of a child. He was a graduate of a large university, and had large means which he had inherited and had added to by success in business. The infection, of which general paralysis was the final outcome several years after he was considered perfectly recovered from the infection, was contracted when he entered college and was the result of a reprehensible prank of some of his fellow students. They undertook to initiate him into some of the demoralizing features which occasionally enter into student life, and, to his undoing, ended by leaving him in a state of alcoholic intoxication in a disorderly house.

Over the door of every immoral resort might truthfully be hung "Incurable insanity may be contracted here." If self-respect, the desire for the good opinion of others, the influence of religious training, and the attractions of home life are not sufficient to prevent this kind of wrong-doing, the danger of contracting a disease which may result in incurable insanity should be sufficient. Who can doubt that if these facts were generally known to the public, as they are known to physicians familiar with mental disease, they would have a profound effect upon the conduct of the average man?

THE RELATION OF ALCOHOL TO INSANITY

Among the various types of insanity, of which at least a dozen might be enumerated, three are so directly traceable to a particular cause that, though differing in important aspects, they are known collectively as the *alcoholic* insanities. No hospital physician questions the direct relation of cause and effect between alcohol and these three types of insanity. There are other forms of insanity to which the use of alcohol is believed by many to be a contributing cause to an extent as yet undefined and uncertain. But as to these three types of insanity there is no difference of opinion. They are due directly and exclusively to the use of alcohol. Its discontinuance may be followed by recovery; its continued use means to these patients insanity and early death. Here again the proportion of men admitted to hospitals for the insane suffering from the alcoholic insanities is greater than the proportion of women, being, roughly speaking, 20 per cent. of the men admitted and 10 per cent. of the women.

The State Charities Aid Association and the other organizations engaged in the pre-

vention of insanity are not temperance societies; they were not formed in the first instance by people who were particularly interested in the temperance question; or if so interested, that interest found expression in other directions. The time has come, however, when every person desirous of promoting the health and happiness of his fellow men and in preventing disease, and especially the great scourges of tuberculosis and insanity, must join hands in furthering whatever methods stand the test of practicability for the purpose of stopping the exploitation of the weakness of human beings for profit. Let us recognize, once for all, that liquors are not made to be drunk, but to be sold; that the most difficult factor in the problem of intemperance is not the man who wants to drink, but the man who wants to sell drinks.

VARIOUS TENDENCIES AND ABNORMALITIES

There is another group of causes of insanity which are, so to speak, the by-products of other diseases. Typhoid fever, diphtheria, influenza, fever following childbirth, and some other diseases, occasionally leave the system so weakened that the poison produced within the body interferes with the nervous system and the brain. A nervous and mental breakdown follows the earlier disease. Particularly when such a disease is accompanied by profound discouragement, anxiety, fear of suffering on the part of family or friends, or fear of the poorhouse, there is a distinct tendency toward mental disturbance. In fact, every effort for the promotion of the general public health, the control of infectious diseases, the securing of a pure food and water supply, of healthful conditions of work in factories, and of sanitary conditions in homes, helps to prevent mental as well as physical diseases.

Certain other forms of insanity, which are not clearly understood, appear to be due to what are called "bad mental habits." The healthy and usual state of mind is one of at least moderate satisfaction with life. Difficulties, troubles, obstacles, and anxieties come to us all, but ordinarily we overcome them and find satisfaction and reasonable comfort in our every-day occupations. We enjoy our work, our homes, our social life. To some persons, however, the bad in life seems to outweigh the good. Reflection tends to become attracted to the things that are morbid, depressing, disturbing, not to the things that are restful, elevating, inspiring. Along with this goes the tendency to conceal one's inner thoughts, to be unusually sensi-

tive, suspicious, to cherish slights, injuries, disappointments, to lose interest in the ordinary affairs of life and in simple pleasures, and to delight in the things that are secretive, forbidden, unnatural, solitary.

All these things are part of a process of deterioration which, if continued, tends to develop insanity. Whether they are, as many believe, actual causes, or whether they are but the symptoms of underlying causes far down in our physical or mental make-ups, we are not sure. Every one of us knows, however, that to some extent our "feelings" are subject to control, that we can "give up to" our feelings of disappointment, weariness, and anxiety; or we can "throw them off" and resolutely go about our duties and "lose ourselves" in our work and in the ordinary affairs of life. What is not generally recognized is the fact that apparently these very processes of "giving up to" our feelings, of cherishing slights, of brooding, of solitariness, are departures from the normal life which, if persisted in, do actually result in profound and often irreparable mental disturbances.

There are two facts which to the average man and in the current tradition are supposed to account for a large volume of insanity. These are overwork and heredity. As a matter of fact it is doubtful if either of these factors ever directly causes insanity. Work, even severe and long continued, unaccompanied by worry, is rarely a cause of nervous or mental disease.

Heredity plays an important but a secondary rôle. It is doubtful whether any number of persons actually directly inherit insanity. One may inherit mental instability, a tendency toward insanity, just as he may inherit a tendency toward weak lungs. If, in my ancestors, there were cases of mental disease, there is every reason on my part for taking special care of my health, but there is also every reason for not being unduly or especially alarmed. This tendency toward insanity may and probably will lie dormant during my entire life, if I take pains to conserve my bodily strength and vigor, to form healthful and temperate habits, to avoid unnecessary anxiety, and to live a simple, normal life. The great majority of my ancestors were sane, the great trend of my inheritance, therefore, is toward health and sanity and not toward disease.

PRACTICAL PREVENTIVE WORK

These being the causes of insanity, what can be done about them? How far can this

knowledge find actual application? If preventable, how can insanity be prevented? There is a striking similarity in general outline between the movement for the prevention of tuberculosis and that for the prevention of insanity. Probably this will also hold true of future movements for the prevention of other diseases. Two distinct lines are indicated from the outset. One, the general education of the public as to the nature, cause, and modes of prevention of the disease, and the other its earlier detection and treatment. The one proceeds upon the perfectly safe assumption that if people generally understand the facts they will, to a considerable degree, adjust their lives accordingly.

People prefer health to sickness, sanity to insanity, freedom to incarceration. If men and boys know that consorting with prostitutes is very likely to mean syphilis, and that syphilis may mean paresis and early death, there will be less of consorting with prostitutes. If people generally know that the habitual and excessive use of alcohol leads hundreds of men and women every year to the doors of hospitals for the insane, there will be fewer instances of the habitual and excessive use of alcohol. Man is a reasoning animal. He does not burn his finger twice in the same fire. He is not wholly rational, but he tends to be rational, and it is always worth while to inform him.

AN EDUCATIONAL CAMPAIGN

On this safe and sure basis the State Charities Aid Association, has outlined and is carrying into effect, a movement for popular education, along scientific lines and by sound psychological methods, as to the causes and prevention of insanity. As one factor in this educational movement, a short leaflet has been prepared, stating in simple language the essential facts as to the causes of insanity so far as they are now known. This leaflet is unique in that, though dealing with a subject of exceptional complexity and obscurity, it bears the following endorsement:

We have read the foregoing pamphlet and find it thoroughly in accord with present scientific authority:

Charles L. Dana, M.D.	Fred. Peterson, M.D.
Albert Warren Ferris, M.D.	Wm. L. Russell, M.D.
August Hoch, M. D.	Bernard Sachs, M.D.
William Mabon, M.D.	M. A. Starr, M.D.

It would be impossible to find eight men whose names would carry greater weight with the medical profession in the Empire State on any subject having to do with nervous and

mental diseases. Drs. Dana, Sachs, and Starr are all eminent experts in mental diseases. Dr. Ferris is president of the State Commission in Lunacy, and Drs. Peterson and Mabon have each held this office. Dr. Russell was formerly State Medical Inspector. Dr. Hoch is Director of the Psychiatric Institute on Ward's Island. The fact that they have been able to agree on such a statement is in itself of tremendous significance. The average medical practitioner, and certainly the average layman, may well accept without anxiety or question a pronouncement from such a source.

This leaflet is being printed not by hundreds, or thousands, but by hundreds of thousands. It is being placed in the hands of men, women, boys and girls, through every form of organization willing to help in distributing it. It has been sent to every physician in the State, to the principal of every public school, to all clergymen, college presidents and faculties, superintendents of city schools, health officers, county school commissioners, secretaries of Y. M. C. A.'s, to officers of labor unions, proprietors of factories, department stores, laundries, to city officials, officers of the local granges, officers of fraternal orders; in short, to all the various types of organizations that are willing to promote such an effort for the public good.

The newspapers of the State are being supplied from time to time with material stating and restating the essential facts. Not too frequently, for those concerned in this movement are aware that it might be quite possible for the community to think too much about its mental health. The campaign must proceed with all patience. The adjustment to the newer attitudes must be made slowly. We are not yet consulting the monthly record of admissions to State hospitals hoping to find any diminution due to our efforts, and shall not do so for many weary but hopeful months to come.

TRAINING IN DETECTION OF SYMPTOMS

As in the tuberculosis campaign, so also in the insanity campaign, a second line of effort, paralleling the first from the start, is the establishment of specific agencies for the earlier detection of the disease and its earlier treatment. Just as the average practitioner does not recognize tuberculosis in its earlier stages, and the average man does not know that anything is wrong with him until it is often too late for him to regain the lost ground, in the case of tuberculosis; so in the

case of insanity. The average medical practitioner knows very little of the early symptoms of mental disorder. The average household, office, or workshop thinks only that this or that individual is queer or moody, but does not regard these facts as requiring any further attention, or as possibly suggesting conditions that need treatment. Just as the layman has to be taught that a persistent cough, a little fever each afternoon and a general feeling of weariness may mean tuberculosis, so he must be taught that certain other things may mean a departure from the normal mental life, and require skilled help and a change in the manner of living. Just as every city is coming to have its tuberculosis dispensary at which any person may secure expert examination of his lungs, so every considerable center of population should have an agency to which any person could be taken quietly and unobtrusively for advice as to peculiarities in mental habit or disposition or attitude toward life, which may indicate the beginnings of mental disorder. Special dispensaries for the earlier recognition and treatment of mental diseases exist in many foreign cities and in a few American cities. They have a clear field of usefulness and undoubtedly as the medical profession plants such outposts in that little explored field, the congested centers of city population, the dispensary or clinic for nervous and mental diseases will be one of its important facilities.

KEEP THE DEVILS OUT

No other fact in modern social life is so hopeful as these various movements for the prevention of disease. Piously claiming to value human life above all else, we have for generation after generation, by our acts, denied our words. We have failed to do the things which would preserve human life. The little white hearse calls at the door for one in five of the babies born in the great cities. The great white plague has taken from one-third to one-fifth of all those dying in middle life. Insanity has filled great hospitals until teeming populations are thus set apart. We have suffered all these things to be done because the lines of responsibility were not clearly defined,—because the facts were not clear beyond all possibility of doubt. This comfortable margin of uncertainty affords us refuge no longer. Science points at us its finger and says, "Thou art the man. Thou art thy brother's keeper." We now know not only that we are our brother's keepers,

but we know how to keep him; how to protect him; how to conserve his life forces. We know how to build up a strong, vigorous race, fit to live; fit to build up a great nation; fit for great deeds of constructive social life; fit to promote the education, uplifting, strengthening of the masses, not simply of the few. Those who have already passed threescore years are to be pitied, chiefly because they will not live to see the wonders which will be accomplished within the next quarter-century in the control of the great ills which have afflicted mankind through centuries of weariness and of suffering, and among them insanity. The devils are not to be cast out, they are to be kept from getting in.

THE FEDERAL REGULATION OF AMERICAN RAILROADS

BY CHARLES H. MARSHALL

[The writer of the following article has had much experience in dealing with the traffic problems of Western railroads. For fourteen years he was with the Southern Pacific Company, under the late Collis P. Huntington, and later served as General Eastern Freight and Passenger Agent (in New York) of the Colorado & Southern Railroad.—THE EDITOR.]

PRIOR to the enactment of the Interstate Commerce law, April 5, 1887, railroad traffic rates (both passenger and freight) were administered through traffic associations. These assemblies were composed of traffic officials who were in charge of specified territories. For instance, the traffic east of the Mississippi River was governed by a body of railroad men known as the Joint Traffic Association, and west of the Mississippi River, by various organizations, which included the Trans-Missouri Freight Association, the Colorado and Utah Traffic Bureau, the Texas Traffic Association, and the Transcontinental Association.

The most prominent of these traffic organizations were the Joint Traffic Association, governing rates between the Atlantic seaboard and Chicago and the Mississippi River, and the Transcontinental Association.

The results anticipated by both the freight-traffic officials and the passenger-traffic men of the roads comprising these associations, were not only to maintain rates but to augment freight tonnage and passenger receipts, respectively.

RATE-CUTTING UNDER THE OLD RÉGIME

To accomplish these things it was necessary to have many representatives of both departments of the railroad traffic in the field. These representatives were empowered to cut freight rates; and passenger revenues also suffered for a similar reason. Weekly and monthly meetings of traffic

officials,—ostensibly held for the purpose of maintaining rates,—became simply clearing-houses for the purpose of passing accusations between the members, one against another, as to the violations of tariff agreements; and ended with promises to maintain thereafter the integrity of published rates.

Every subordinate freight and passenger man was accountable to his higher traffic official, who in turn was responsible to the president of each road, for shrinkage of freight tonnage and passenger revenues.

Freight-traffic representatives would leave traffic meetings pledging maintenance of rates and deliberately go to shippers and tie up business for weeks and even months in the future at contract concessions from the tariff.

Passenger-traffic officials would leave their organization meetings and deliver bundles of tickets to scalpers and brokers to be disposed of at a price lower than that for which the public could purchase them at the authorized offices of the various roads.

Also, the ticket agents of Eastern roads were authorized to cut rates on passenger traffic beyond Chicago and the Mississippi River, for passenger business to be routed by special lines; and these ticket agents were paid monthly vouchers by such Western connecting lines. These vouchers aggregated large amounts and were commissions for routing the business over such lines as were competing for the passenger traffic. There were many instances where ticket agents, whose monthly salaries were nominal,

received checks from Western connections that augmented their income into the thousands per month.

Freight-traffic wars occurred so frequently that there were almost constant calls for meetings to be held at St. Louis, Chicago, New York, and other centers most accessible to traffic officials.

In 1883, shortly after the opening of the Huntington Southern Pacific route between the Atlantic seaboard and the Pacific coast, the other transcontinental roads then existing, namely, the Union Pacific, the Northern Pacific and the Santa Fé, became aware that their tonnage was being diverted to the water-route, through New Orleans.

In those days rates from the Atlantic seaboard to the Pacific Coast were based on a first-class rate of six dollars per one hundred pounds and the traffic revenue resultant therefrom was well worth fighting for.

During 1884-85, a freight war was inaugurated that reduced freight rates to a basis of about one dollar per one hundred pounds, without regard to classification, and fifty cents per one hundred pounds on iron and steel products; and this tremendous shrinkage in revenue from traffic was wasted by the transcontinental transportation companies.

Similar conditions were operative on freight traffic between competitive points east of the Mississippi River, the trunk-line railroad agents contracting for whatever business they could secure, at rates lower than the published schedule.

The steamship lines operating between Atlantic ports and Gulf ports,—assisted by their railway connections running west from New Orleans and north from the Texas coast,—were constantly fighting for the ever-increasing freight traffic to Texas points and the territory beyond. Rates were correspondingly disturbed from Chicago, St. Louis, and other interior commercial and manufacturing centers to these same points of destination. A general chaotic condition of rate demoralization from and to all defined territories within the United States existed from each year's beginning to its end and tranquillity was unknown.

Aside from the direct cutting of rates, annual passes over all the roads were demanded by the larger shippers and trip passes could be had for the asking. The passenger departments of all the great railway systems were being operated at a loss. No conception of these dwarfed revenues is possible

without considering the free transportation to politicians and office-holders of every degree in the nation, States, municipalities, villages, and counties,—also passes to the clergy and their families, to the newspapers, for advertising and other considerations, to the employees and families of employees of other roads, to shipping clerks, traveling salesmen, and others.

DISREGARD OF LAW

These were the prevailing conditions before the operation of the Interstate Commerce act, which as originally framed was sufficient to encompass the protection of the stockholders and bondholders of the railroads, with the elimination of such ruinous conflicts for traffic. But since then we have had the Sherman Anti-Trust law, the Elkins law and the Hepburn act, every one of which accelerates the power and forcefulness of the Interstate Commerce law.

For many months and even years after the Interstate Commerce law was passed some railroads disregarded entirely the penalties connected with its violation, and continued to pay rebates on freight, commissions to ticket agents and "scalpers," and to give free transportation to those who could control freight tonnage.

It may be confidently stated that few of the railways gave the slightest heed to the new order of things made mandatory by the Interstate Commerce law, until the indictment, prosecution, and conviction of the traffic manager of the Missouri Pacific Railway at St. Louis, for giving rebates, early in President Harrison's administration. The moral effect of this, however, yielded no lasting correction of these illegal practices, and not long thereafter the situation was exactly the same as before the statute became operative; and the complexities of the question of distribution of tonnage between competing lines again confronted the railway traffic associations. At about this time the Canadian Pacific Railway entered the field as a competitor for transcontinental business within the United States, and a new problem was introduced to the transcontinental lines of this country.

After these periodical belligerent struggles between the railways for tonnage had run their profitless course, traffic managers would meet, dismiss their latent irritation, and adopt some cohesive plan for restoring published rates; and the "rate war" would again be an event of the past, until implacable dis-

trust of each other on the part of these officials would project another rate war.

Actual reformation was never possible through the illogical makeshifts of these oft-recurring conferences. Adequate relief could be secured only through the masterful enforcement of the Commerce act, and this actually has come to pass after the lapse of years,—through the painstaking investigations and prosecutions by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

ENFORCEMENT SECURED BY INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION

Rebates and free transportation now exist only as history, and have been expunged from the vocabulary of the railroad man, as well as the shipper. All of the old-time subterfuges for manipulating rates have been abandoned, such as free storage of freight on docks, in cars or in freight stations; absorption of demurrage and lighterage charges; absorption of fictitious "arbitraries," from so-called points of origin, up to steamship piers on freight for shipment via "water and rail"; under-billing in weight and under-classification; false description of contents of packages; filing of fictitious claims for loss or damage and their payment through connivance of the railways. All these unlawful expedients to stimulate business were made impossible by the never-ending vigilance of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which recruited a detective or investigating force from experienced railroad traffic men throughout the United States. By this plan the technical unraveling of violations of the Commerce act was centered in the hands of trained men.

OLD ABUSES DONE AWAY WITH

The indiscriminate issuance of passes to public officials, politicians, shippers, consignees, "drummers," and railroad employees without official title, has absolutely terminated. Special legislation has driven the ticket "scalper" from his occupation. The luxury and celerity and safety of traveling have been augmented emphatically.

Railway traffic associations are now bureaus, devoted to uniformity and unanimity of legal action; the standardizing of tariffs and division sheets; and the non-combative adjustment of perplexing problems. The traffic manager is no longer harassed by the question of a shrinkage in freight tonnage or

in passenger revenues, for the reason that his chief executive has already tested the pulse of business conditions and can interpret the correct causes therefor in advance.

It must not be assumed that all the railways willingly conformed eventually to those sections of the Commerce act repressing rebates and free transportation. Their acceptance of conditions was gradual, but ultimately enforced upon them by the tremendous number of indictments and convictions and penalties assessed under the provisions of the Commerce act.

Competitive traffic is sought for much more actively now than ever before, but upon the advanced ideas of superiority of service and facilities, whilst the personality of freight and passenger men and their activities figure not a little in the results.

AUGMENTED RAILROAD EARNINGS

It is not doubted, but is in fact well known, that the railways have expended vast sums for improvements during the past decade. But what has become of the enormous sums that have been saved by the increased receipts from freight and passenger traffic since the roads abandoned their practices of formidable waste through unlawful manipulation of rates and revenue? Their recklessness and extravagance have been unparalleled in these respects. A large proportion of improvements by the railroads have been independently financed and there is apparently an abundance of excess funds in this country for future demands of this character. Local as well as competitive traffic is increasing amazingly and thus automatically provides the railways with increased business and augmented earnings, no portion of which is now wasted by rate manipulation.

The decision of February 24, 1911, by the Interstate Commerce Commission, denying certain railroads the authority to advance their freight rates between certain defined territories, cannot but be characterized as just—and will eventually be so regarded by the companies affected by the decision. This is inevitable because of the clause in the decision conceding the advance to the roads if the latter are fortified to conclusively prove its necessity.

This decision confirms the belief that there is operative federal regulation of the railways,—and hence at once annihilates all question of federal ownership.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WOMAN AS A FACTOR IN THE PEACE PROBLEM

IT is a useful work that is being done by the American Association for International Conciliation in the publication, month after month, of a pamphlet on some topic calculated to advance the objects of the association. The March issue, on "Woman and the Cause of Peace," by the Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, derives additional interest from the recent visit to the United States of its distinguished author. The baron urges that in man's own interest it is most important that woman should be free, because it is man who is most degraded by the present state of affairs. After remarking that the real Frenchwoman—not the Frenchwoman of the novelists—is "lost to view behind the shining personality of her husband, her father, her son," and that, "subordinated as she is by custom and law, she is satisfied if she is politely treated in society and respected at home"; that the Englishwoman "demands more; she worries little about her welfare, but, in the middle class and in the aristocracy, at any rate, she receives more consideration," he has this to say about woman in America:

In America and in the English colonies her triumph is complete. In a country peopled by immigration the position of woman rises rapidly as the result of the spirit of liberty and of the full exercise of her responsibility. She could not live at all if the general interest did not protect her energetically against the rigors of the new environment. Through her are kept alive the memories of the distant fatherland, of the forefathers, of the abandoned hearth; she is the hope of the new race; she is the Good Fairy; she represents comfort, to say nothing of charm. It is not astonishing that she should turn this reversal of position to her own profit and to the profit of her children. Within a few years, I have seen the accomplishment of great advances in America in the education of women and of children, and as an inevitable consequence, in education toward Peace. Nothing, indeed, compares in importance with this fundamental work.

Woman now rules her husband and the child rules the household. This change is well illustrated by the charming story of an American grandfather at a family dinner. When asked if he liked the chicken's wing, he replied: "I have never tasted it. When I was a youngster it went to our parents; to-day it goes to our children." These children, spoiled though some of them may be, are free beings. At a memorable meeting in New York, when I spoke to an audience of children, they

seemed to me to be direct heirs of the generosity of their forefathers; the emancipation of the slave, perhaps, did more for the liberators than for those who were freed.

Baron d'Estournelles believes that the influence of woman to-day is spreading, and that it is secretly working against war, as Joan of Arc years ago worked openly; and this, he thinks, is why the influence of woman has always been antagonized; why it is antagonized to-day and will be for years to come. He adds:

It is not enough to dominate woman, to take advantage of her, to thrust her to the second place. The way to reduce her to absolute powerlessness and to take from her the right and even the desire to protest, is to bury her under flowers, to debase her. Of course, this corruption is encouraged by all those who profit by it, beginning with the rich men's sons who must have their fling. These must sow their wild oats, but we must not forget that some youth is having its fling at the cost of other youth. Thus there is developed a whole more or less unconscious system of corruption, working from above down, from those who ought to be furnishing a better example. There is actually a business of pornography, through which large corporations are enriching themselves, just as in every country the city, or the State itself, waxes rich from alcohol. We preach abstinence, and we denounce the poison, but we sell it.

Naturally it is the children of the poor and defenseless who are the victims, not those of the rich and protected. Young girls, hardly more than children, fall by millions into the net which is spread forth to catch them. At the doors of the kitchen and the workshop they are greeted by a special type of illustrated literature designed to emphasize their isolation and unhappiness, for the sole purpose of turning them from honest lives. And this is possible because of the indifference of respectable women, who sit at home, and of the public at large, who know nothing about it. And still people are astonished when in revenge some of those wretched creatures, before being cast aside as spoiled food and swept into the stream of oblivion, have incited the "Apaches" against the "Bourgeois."

Hitherto the women have not known how, or have not wished, to organize themselves in their own defense. This has encouraged man in his error. The march of events, however, must soon bring the women together; and, far from being an anarchic element in society, the influence of woman would prove to be its safety, just as to-day it is the safety of the family.

WAR ON THE HOOKWORM—THE ROCKEFELLER SANITARY COMMISSION

IT is exactly nine years ago (May, 1902) that Dr. Charles Wardell Stiles published a little two-page pamphlet announcing the new American hookworm, which he later called the *Necator Americanus*, the "American murderer." In October, 1909, Mr. J. D. Rockefeller gave \$1,000,000, to be devoted to the eradication and prevention of the hookworm disease. The administration of this fund was placed in charge of a commission composed of a number of well-known physicians, educators, and publicists, including Dr. Stiles and Mr. Wickliffe Rose, who became administrative secretary of the commission. At first known as the Rockefeller Hookworm Commission, it later adopted the official title The Rockefeller Sanitary Commission for the Eradication of Hookworm Disease, with the short title Rockefeller Sanitary Commission. In the *South Atlantic Quarterly*, Prof. William H. Glasson gives an account of the work of the commission to the end of last year, and as introductory thereto describes the work of the Legislature of Porto Rico in regard to hookworm disease. We read:

The organized campaign on American soil for the eradication of hookworm disease began in the island of Porto Rico. At the close of the war with Spain, living conditions for the masses in that island were bad because of the war and of a failure to make crops. In August, 1899, while the military government was in control, a terrible cyclone visited the island. The loss of life was great, and there was a general condition of destitution among the poorer inhabitants. Dr. Bailey K. Ashford, of the Medical Corps of the United States Army, was placed in charge of a large field hospital to aid in caring for the sufferers. He was feeding many people who were said to be starving but he did not find that they improved as he expected. Abundant food failed to produce any appreciable effect upon the prevalent anemia. Therefore Dr. Ashford came to the conclusion that there existed some other cause not only for the condition of these patients but also for that of the great number of anemics found throughout Porto Rico. After investigation of many cases, he was led to examine the feces of the patients, found eggs present, and established the fact that the hookworm was the cause of the disease.

As the result of Dr. Ashford's researches, a commission was appointed and the Legislature of Porto Rico in February, 1904, appropriated \$5000, in 1905 \$15,000, and in 1906 \$50,000, creating in the last-named year a permanent Porto Rico Anemia Commission. The Porto Rican campaign against the hookworm is carried on mainly by means of dis-

pensaries at various points in the island. At these dispensaries every sufferer may obtain a microscopic diagnosis, a free specific for his disease, together with printed matter and verbal explanation. In the five years up to June 30, 1909, there were between 40 and 50 per cent. of complete cures, and in November, 1910, the total number of persons treated in Porto Rico had reached 287,000.

The Rockefeller Sanitary Commission has its headquarters in the city of Washington. Its operations, as the name indicates, lie in the direction of the prevention of disease by the introduction of improved sanitary precautions to the absence of which the propagation of the hookworm disease has been so largely due. The Commission coöperates with the State health authorities, making an appropriation to the State board of health for the eradication of hookworm disease. The board elects an executive officer. The State is divided into districts, and physicians are appointed as inspectors to locate infected persons. Where possible, the treatment is by the family physician; and various methods are used to provide for the indigent.

With regard to the distribution of hookworm infection throughout the Southern States, the Commission reports:

The examinations being made at the State laboratory are demonstrating that the infection is widespread—much more so than any of us suspected one year ago. The infection has in this short time been demonstrated in 91 out of a total of 100 counties in Virginia; in 97 out of the 98 counties in North Carolina; in 22 out of 43 counties in South Carolina, and these distributed over the whole State; in 108 of the 145 counties in Georgia; in 63 of the 67 counties in Alabama; in Louisiana two months' work has demonstrated infection in 23 parishes; in Mississippi it has been demonstrated in 65 of the 76 counties; in Arkansas, in 20 counties in the southern part of the State, where the survey has been made by personal inspection with microscopic examinations; in Tennessee, which has no State laboratory, microscopic examinations by the State director and his staff have demonstrated the infection in 52 of the 96 counties, and these situated in every section of the State.

These examinations being made at the laboratories are showing also that very many people are infected. The North Carolina State laboratory has just completed an examination of 5556 people, taken by groups without reference to clinical symptoms. These people are college students, soldiers, orphans, public-school children of all ages and conditions. The records show that of the 5556 persons, 2408, or 43 per cent., are infected.

These two groups of facts are growing in volume daily; being the records of microscopic examinations made by experts, their accuracy cannot be questioned. They show that the infection is very prevalent among the people, that all classes of people are subject to it, and that it is distributed over large areas of each of the States; they bring home to the people living in these infected areas the importance to the individual and to the com-

munity of having every carrier of infection examined and treated.

The Florida State Department of Health is continuing an independent campaign against hookworm disease, which had been begun before the organization of the Rockefeller Commission.

THREATENED REVOLUTION IN SOUTH CAROLINA

IN the South, in spite of some inevitable social differences, there is much that is common to all white men; and their poverty, the misfortunes they have suffered, and the dangers they have faced have welded them together and saved them from the cruel dissensions usually incident to material progress under competitive conditions. Shall this immunity continue? As the sun of a new day rises to enfold the clear prospect of a splendid prosperity is it possible that it may be enjoyed without the attending miseries of class divisions that so often have made prosperity unreal elsewhere? With strikes of weekly or daily occurrence in one or another part of the North to admonish them of the dangers of what we carelessly call "prosperity," can they do nothing to ward them off? Is it not possible for the South to furnish the world with the spectacle of prosperity that is not wholly selfish and unequal as between man and man? These are questions propounded in the *Sewanee Review* by Mr. William W. Ball, of Columbia, South Carolina, who traces the industrial conditions of his State for the past quarter-century, and arrives at the conclusion that it is "in the midst of an industrial revolution." He writes:

Instead of a dominating landowning class, we have two classes of people, landowners and other capitalists (the owners of stores, mills, and shops), and a white wage-earning class, and the latter is swelling immensely in numbers and political potency. . . . It is too early to say that the white laborers on the farms (exclusive of landowning laborers) will reach numerical importance, but the drift is in that direction. That the town and village laboring class is large and growing, is the present fact.

Some loose commentator has said that a political revolution is due in South Carolina at the end of thirty-year periods, speaking roundly. If we reckon 1890 as such an event,—and this I deny,—another is to be expected in 1920,—and this I do not prophesy,—but it is reasonable to prophesy that when next there shall be a cleavage in the body politic in South Carolina, it will be on the lines of capital and labor—the landowners forming the center of the capitalistic array

and the wage-earners of every sort uniting in opposition.

In 1885 there was the stagnation of despair in politics, to be followed by the commotion among the landowners five years later. In 1910 we have the same stagnation on the part of the landowners, but from an opposite cause. The farmers are not and cannot be aroused to acute political activity, because they are contented; but, if there be no outward unrest on the part of wage-earners now, that is no reason why it may not show itself at any moment.

Personally, Mr. Ball avows the belief that the race sympathy is so strong among the whites of the South that serious and permanent division with regard to the negro as an incident cannot take place, at least within this century or the next. There is, however, this difference between the conditions of 1890 and this next political rending: unconsciously, the factions felt the shallowness of their bickerings, and the great sound, healthy, white body politic held firmly together. There was but one class of white people in 1890. With two classes of white people, the danger of coalition by one or the other with a third class apart and aloof (that third part being the negroes) is trebled. Two of these classes will have in common one of the strongest motives, if not the strongest, known to the human heart—the motive to get the most bread and meat for a day's work. Obviously, says Mr. Ball, if any conscienceless demagogue should arise to attempt the destruction of white unity, the way would be clearer for his knavishness than it has been heretofore.

In furthering the industrial development of South Carolina, the duty of press and public alike should be to prevent political division. To quote the same writer further:

This consummation is to be effected by developing the man as the industrial unit. To my mind, a community of 1000 heads of families owning their own homes is superior in every desirable way to another having 10,000 heads of families of whom 1000 own homes. The ownership of a home is the sheet-anchor of good citizenship. Increase of town population is a boon, first of all to the real-

estate holder who has land to sell, and then to the merchant, hotel keeper, and every other capitalist, including the farmer who supplies the town market; but to the wage-earner, who has only labor to sell and its price to buy with, it may be, it usually is, the reverse. Arguing from this premise, the first step should be to encourage, to stimulate, to enable, so far as possible, the wage-earner to become a capitalist; that is, to stake himself in the community by buying a home.

There is much meaningless talk about "trusts"; but the monster trust is the land trust. When the price of land has mounted so high that the poor cannot own farms, and the large domains are in the hands of the few, there is little chance of the average man

to better himself. What the State should do is to make the landless South Carolinian a landlord; and the way to do this is to make him an expert farmer so that he can earn a livelihood on ten to twenty-five acres. As Mr. Ball here remarks, when the man has been industrially developed so as to share fairly in the resources of the State, the germs of political evil are eradicated in him. If there are any signs of a political revolution to result from the laboring man's discontent the wise policy is to meet it and check it by helping him to become a small capitalist, a home-owner in the town or a landowning farmer in the country.

RABIES—PREVENTION BETTER THAN CURE

THAT rabies, or hydrophobia—to give the disease its popular name—is a real evil in the community, calling for suppression and eradication, the figures presented by Dr. F. C. Walsh, of Chicago, in the current *Forum* incontestably demonstrate. In States as widely separated as New York and Indiana rabies has been rampant for the past three or four years. The incomplete records of New York show that during the past three years there were bitten by mad animals:

105 persons,	of which number	12 died.
10 horses	" " "	5 "
68 cattle	" " "	38 "
11 swine	" " "	10 "

In the State of Indiana since 1906 there have been bitten by mad animals 165 persons and vast numbers of live stock, one lone mad dog in Richmond putting to death no fewer than fourteen of a herd of choice dairy cows. Although our friend the dog is, of all domestic animals, the oftenest afflicted with madness, many of the lower animals develop rabies. For example, in Paris, of a list of 1903 cases of bites by animals suspected of madness, 833 were by dogs, 247 by horses, 6 by cats, and 7 by various other animals. In Prussia, bites by mad deer have been recorded; and in Russia, as also in some of our Western States, rabid wolves have been especially destructive. Thus it will be seen that the dog, though not the only offender, leads all the others by a large plurality. As Dr. Walsh truly remarks, if we can rid the dog of rabies, the greatest source of danger to the human being, as regards this particular disease, is forever removed. Equally pertinent is his assertion that "the whole problem is not a medical, but a socio-political one. It is well enough for the medical men to handle the individual

cases that have been bitten, but if the disease is to be prevented and suppressed, it will not be done by the medical profession." To quote him further:

Let us not mince matters. . . . Every dog without an owner, every stray dog, and every unmuzzled dog regardless of ownership, must be rounded up and painlessly put out of the way; not merely during the midsummer months, but during all the winter months as well; for our vigilance cannot safely be relaxed for one single hour, in any one month, week, or day of the entire year. That is, if we wish to exterminate the terrorizing, destructive nuisance. Unless the policy suggested, or a better one, be carried into effect, and especially in those States already mentioned, where rabies is epidemic, we may expect its ravages to increase, or forever go on unnecessarily. There is no room for sentiment in any discussion of the matter: the stray, ownerless dog must go. It will be doing the homeless canine a kind turn, anyway.

Dr. Walsh would also make the owners of dogs help in the remedial effort. He says:

There is another thing which would be a useful pleasure to see accomplished: that is, the enactment of a law making the owner criminally responsible for any overt act on the part of his dog, particularly when that dog goes mad. This would have sufficient force to make the owner exceedingly careful in seeing that his dog was muzzled, or cause him to get rid of the animal altogether. In either case, the public would receive the benefit. This would apply very aptly to the country districts, where it is often a difficult matter to enforce rigidly the law which requires all dogs to be muzzled. The entire question is a social one, and the means for its solution lie near at hand, within the grasp of the people.

England is held up as the exemplar in this matter. Our British cousins have stamped out the disease completely; and the chances of its ever again implanting itself in England are very small, as no dog is allowed to be taken into the country without undergoing a lengthy quarantine.

HOW TARIFFS SHOULD NOT BE MADE

THE views expressed by Prof. F. W. Taussig in his article "How Tariffs Should Not be Made," in the first number of the *American Economic Review*, will receive the hearty approval of a very large number of Americans. There is undoubtedly, as he suggests, a general conviction that our legislative methods should be changed so far as the tariff is concerned. There is also a widespread feeling that the country should know more about the details of tariff legislation, and should know about them in advance. As he observes, "if increases of duty are to be made, let them be made openly, and let the reasons be stated. If a domestic producer is to be helped by a handicap on foreign competitors, let it be made clear from the start just what is to be done for him and just what a given tariff provision means. Let there be no more jokers." The distinguished Harvard expert in economics describes four episodes characteristic of our tariff-making methods which he encountered in the course of inquiries into the legislative history of the Tariff act of 1909; namely, the changes in the duty on (1) structural steel, (2) cotton gloves, (3) nippers and pliers, and (4) razors; and he calls attention to the different methods adopted by the House and the Senate respectively with regard to the preparation of the tariff bills. Whereas the House Committee on Ways and Means held many hearings and printed every document submitted to it, the Senate Committee on Finance held *no hearings and published nothing*.

In 1897 the duty on structural steel had been $\frac{1}{10}$ c. per pound. In the act of 1909 the duty was fixed at $\frac{3}{10}$ c. per pound on structural steel valued up to $\frac{9}{10}$ c. per pound, and $\frac{1}{10}$ c. per pound valued at over $\frac{9}{10}$ c. on "beams, girders, joists . . . together with all other structural shapes of iron and steel or iron, *not assembled, or manufactured, or advanced beyond hammering, rolling, or casting*." Nothing being said about the duty on steel that was "assembled or manufactured," Professor Taussig inquired of the Treasury, and was informed that such steel would have to come in under the clause "manufactures of iron and steel not otherwise provided for," at 45 per cent. ad valorem. The House bill had proposed $\frac{1}{10}$ c. per pound; and there is not the slightest indication of what happened in the Senate committee, which inserted the italicized clause, or what the reasons were for the substantial increase of duty there provided for.



PROFESSOR F. W. TAUSSIG OF HARVARD

Under the Dingley act (of 1897) cotton gloves had come in at a duty of 45 per cent. as "manufactures of cotton not otherwise provided for." The House bill of 1909 had left this unchanged; but a new clause was inserted in the Senate Committee of the Whole, and, as passed, the act fixed the duty at 50c. per dozen plus 40 per cent. ad valorem on gloves having a value of \$6 or less a dozen pairs, and 50 per cent. ad valorem without any supplement of specific duty on gloves valued at over \$6 per dozen. The insertion of the specific duty brings a great advance on cheap gloves, the total duty becoming on some of them as much as 90 per cent. on the value. When the change attracted Professor Taussig's attention, he wrote to persons conversant with the trade and found this curious situation:

The cheaper gloves are worth at wholesale one dollar a dozen, or thereabouts. They are imported largely from Germany. They are used for the most part by policemen, marines, and militia, for dress occasions; they are bought principally by public officials. The duty was inserted in the Senate through the activity of a person well known in the trade. He had got the ear of a New England senator, a member of the Finance Committee, who had secured for his protégé the increase of duty.



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A glove importer who was conversant with the facts wrote as follows:

For years we have bought men's and boys' cheap cotton gloves wholesale from \$1.12½ to \$1.25, from Germany, but on account of the extra special duty of 50c. per dozen, it has been absolutely impossible to continue buying these goods abroad. . . . We have been obliged to place our orders with Mr. ——. He is a member of the firm of —, who are making a very cheap domestic glove and reaping the direct benefits of the tariff which Mr. — was instrumental in placing on these goods. He was in our store last Saturday, soliciting more business and states that he has received some very large contracts from the U. S. Army. One of his orders for this spring was for over 200,000 pairs. So that not only the public but the U. S. Government is contributing to his support through the new tariff."

It should be noted that private protests to the Senator in charge secured a modification of the bill to the extent of exempting gloves for women, which were allowed to come in at the old rate. Most persons will agree with Professor Taussig when he says:

It may be thought humiliating for this great country that our soldiers should wear on dress occasion cheap cotton gloves made by cheap German labor; it may even be thought that their martial spirit would be enfeebled. For myself, I am able to face the possibility without a shock to my feelings of patriotism. But it seems tolerably clear that the moving force in bringing about the new duty was not the semi-military consideration, but pressure from the interested Mr. —. If changes in duty such as this are to be made, should they not be deliberately reported and publicly considered?

On nippers and pliers the House proposed no change of the old duty of 45 per cent. The

Senate committee also proposed no alteration; but in the Senate "a well-known official, not a Senator, stood sponsor for the change to 8c. per pound plus 40 per cent." Persons who protested against this were told that "it really was of little consequence what they might say or present. So long as this statesman was insistent in requesting the increased new duty, it would remain. And remain it did." Professor Taussig was informed that the new duty had been put in "at the request of a Utica manufacturing concern."

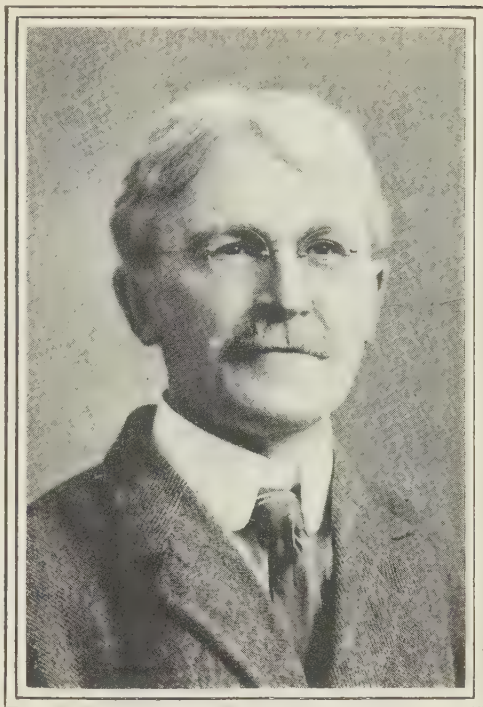
As regards the duty on razors it may be said, without giving the details, that the combination of specific and ad valorem rates conceals and at the same time achieves duties of from 75 to 100 per cent. "Where," remarks the Professor, "the domestic producers ask for so great a handicap on their foreign competitors, the presumption is against them. Either they are trying to do work for which our resources and our ways are not fitted, or they are not abreast of progress in their own industry."

Two questions come up for consideration with regard to the cases under notice: one, as to the expediency of the advances in duty, and the other as to the methods by which these advances were brought about. The answer to the first will turn on one's opinions as to the advantages of protective duties. On the second the protectionist will probably say: "Our legislative methods are in every direction unsystematic and irresponsible. We cannot escape log rolling, private interviews with influential politicians, settlement of de-

tails in quiet committee meetings." On the other hand, the opponent of protection will smell corruption, though he is probably mistaken on this score. But, apart from private interests, there is a strong conviction that publicity in tariff matters should be secured through some agency other than the House and Senate committees. A permanent body is needed, "equipped to make investigation, and to make a judicial report as to the significance of proposed changes."

The New Economic Review

The *American Economic Review*, in the first number of which appears Professor Taussig's article, is the official publication of the American Economic Association, taking the place of the bulletin and monographs heretofore issued by that body. It will appear quarterly, and will contain, besides contributed articles, reviews and annotations of books, abstracts of documents, and general news notes in the field of economics. In the current number, in addition to Professor Taussig's discussion of tariff-making, the leading articles are: "Some Unsettled Problems of Irrigation," by Prof. Katharine Coman; "Seasonal Variations in the New York Money Market," by Prof. E. W. Kemmerer; and "The Promotion of Trade with South America," by Prof. David Kinley. In addition, there is a communication on East Indian Immigration to the Pacific Coast, by H. A. Millis, and notes on



PROFESSOR DAVIS R. DEWEY

(Managing Editor of the *American Economic Review*)

workmen's compensation bills. The *Review* is conducted by a board of editors chosen by the Economic Association, the managing editor being Prof. Davis R. Dewey, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

HOW JAPAN IS AMERICANIZING MANCHURIA

THE modern dictionaries define the verb "Americanize" as "to render American," "to stamp with American character." That is just what Japan is doing with Manchuria, and doing it with startling rapidity. She is creating city after city patterned after the American model. Where twelve years ago were mud huts, palatial hotels now raise their heads high in air; an electric park, the amusement place of Dairen (Dalny), now occupies the site of a former fishing village on Talienswan Bay; and the entire region seems to have been touched by a magician's wand until it has been modernized and Americanized out of all possible recognition. So writes Mr. Alexander Hume Ford in the new *Mid-Pacific Magazine* (Honolulu), of which he is publisher and editor. Twelve years ago Mr. Ford wrote out and put into cipher the

first cable order for American locomotives and railway material to be landed in Port Arthur for the construction of the Chinese Eastern Railway across Manchuria. No time was lost in filling it. We read:

Sixty days later the first shipment of American railway material to enter Manchuria arrived. It made good. Within a year or two some 1200 miles of American-built and equipped railway stretched across until then unknown Manchuria. Everyone in America began talking of the American conquest of the Far East, and I made my debut in *McClure's* as a magazine writer on this subject. But, like the Russians, we reckoned without the Japanese. To-day Japan owns the Chinese Eastern Railway in Southern Manchuria.

In 1899 what is now known as Dairen was a barren waste. The Czar created the spot a metropolitan city, the terminus of the 7,000-mile-long trans-Asian railway, naming it

Dalny, or "Far East." In less than three years the Russians laid out and built up one of the finest towns in the Far East, with parks and roads, cathedral, mansions, wharves and warehouses. The Japanese occupied it at the beginning of the Russo-Japanese war, and changed the name of it to "Dairen." To-day it has a population of 60,000. The town is lighted by electricity and gas, and has ample telephone facilities; electric tramways traverse the main streets; the roads are macadamized and lined with shade trees; the usual social organizations exist, such as the Dairen Club and the Dairen Golfing Association; and the wharves, with a frontage of over 6,000 feet, can accommodate steamers of 28 feet draught. The laborers' homes are of concrete, and resemble the most modern apartment houses.

In contrast to the Russian passport system, the Japanese entice the tourist to travel over the Manchurian railway, and issue guide-books to the passengers.

The great financial power in the Far East to-day is the South Manchuria Railway Company. This company was organized in 1906 with a capital of 200,000,000 yen (\$100,000,000) to operate that portion of the Chinese Eastern Railway system which was transferred to Japan by Russia under the terms of the Portsmouth Convention of 1905. The

main line to Chang-chun connects there with the trans-Siberian route; and there is a bi-weekly steamer service to Shanghai, which can be reached in about forty-three hours. There is also rail connection with Korea. Indeed, as Mr. Ford observes, Japan is waking up everything in the Far East.

The historic Port Arthur has also become an important city under Japanese direction. Mr. Ford says of it:

One May day a little over a decade ago I rode out from the Manchu town of Port Arthur on the first locomotive to turn wheels toward Mukden and Siberia. Our hotel was then a one-story building, the floor of the dining-room was the bare mud, and stray dogs the dishwashers. For aggregate filth Port Arthur took the palm, and the Manchus and Russians were content. . . . Then came the war and its historic siege, and once more the Japanese entered Port Arthur, this time for keeps. A new city has been constructed, and real hotels and theaters grace the main streets, and the tourist is abroad in all the highways and byways. Port Arthur is only 38 miles away from Dairen, scarcely more than an hour by fast train. . . . The trolley will doubtless soon bowl along beaches and battlefields. . . . Japan is planting modern American so-called civilization in the dearest, most sleepy and forgotten part of all Asia.

It seems probable that ten years of Japan in Manchuria, will, as Mr. Ford observes, work wonders that a cycle has not accomplished in conservative Russia.



THE JAPANESE GOVERNOR'S HOUSE AT DAIREN (DALNY)
(One of the American type of buildings the Japanese are erecting in Manchuria)

WHY A JAPANESE-AMERICAN WAR IS "IMPOSSIBLE"

THE ever-recurring question of the possibility of a war between the United States and Japan is discussed in a recent issue of the *Deutsche Revue* (Berlin) by Baron Alexander von Siebold, a painstaking German student of war. He declares, in a vigorous and convincing manner, that "the prospect of such a calamitous event is based on very slender foundations."

Next to Holland the United States, he reminds us, is Japan's oldest friend. It was through American interposition, even if an indirect one, that the Japanese nation was not only drawn into the circle of Western civilization but that, consequent upon it, the shogunate was overthrown and supreme power restored to the Mikado,—referring, of course, to Perry.

The United States displayed a most friendly spirit, says this German writer, particularly after the restoration of monarchical power, toward the just wishes of the Japanese, recognizing claims that were based upon the progress they had achieved. Hundreds of Japanese students found their way to this country, while American missionaries and professors coöperated in the Japanese reforms. How is it possible that discord should have broken out between two nations having such intimate intercourse and such mutually beneficial trade relations!

There are, in Baron von Siebold's opinion, only two questions that have caused the tension.

These points at issue are Japanese immigration in the Western States of the Union, and the maintenance of the principle of the "open door" (that is, equal opportunities for trade and settlement to all foreigners admitted by treaty) in Manchuria. Sensational journalists have thought to conjure up a third issue, which in reality does not exist—supremacy in the Pacific Ocean.

The first question—Japanese immigration in California—is less than was formerly supposed in Japan, one of race than of labor competition. The labor party having gained a controlling influence in the Legislature, utilized it to curtail the rights of cheap, namely Asiatic, labor.

Cheap Chinese labor had furnished tremendous competition, and when the Japanese began to arrive that party, overlooking the fact that they were fundamentally different from the Chinese, lumped them all together. The President was unable on account of constitutional restrictions to "rescue the situation." This indefensible position, confined as

it was to a single State, was not interpreted in an unfriendly spirit by the Japanese Government, and, with a wish to preserve its long friendship with this country, it proceeded to regulate and check emigration. If, however, the emigration objectionable to the Laborites was thus limited and comparative quiet reigned in California, public opinion in Japan would not be placated. As a consequence of the new regulations, the emigration to the United States was not only reduced in 1908 and 1909 but the number of those returning to Japan exceeded that of the emigrants from there. Aside from the fact, then, that there is question of but a small annual Japanese immigration—perhaps two or three thousand—statistics likewise clearly show that the number of Japanese remaining here will diminish to such an extent that a serious competition of labor can no longer be regarded as an issue. Meanwhile a careful investigation of the Japanese labor question in California by the United States Government has, surprisingly, shown that in fruit raising and horticulture trained Japanese labor is indispensable to the future of that State. Whether such labor will, under existing conditions, be ready to coöperate further is doubtful, as, since the annexation to Korea, Japanese emigrants find better protection under their own colonial government than in California, where, at best, they are only tolerated.

As to the open door in Manchuria, history shows that it was only through the Russo-Japanese Railway and its occupation by Russia after the Boxer uprising that attention was called to the region that is now the subject of contention of all commercial nations. The United States, says Baron von Siebold, promptly sent consular representatives there to protect American trade.

It soon became evident, however, that Russia was by no means willing to abandon to general competition the fruits of her great sacrifices in connecting herself with China's unexplored territory. It was only after the Treaty of Portsmouth that Manchuria was effectually opened to world commerce. Japan, by the terms of that treaty, received no war indemnity; her sole compensation was a few kilometers of the Russian railway, with its accompanying rights. Naturally, Japanese citizens had made it a point to study the resources and trade conditions of the country, and they hastened to gain a firm footing there before those of other commercial nations stepped in. Coupling this with the fact that the Japanese and Chinese have the same literary language, it is readily comprehensible that the former had a tremendous start of the other foreigners. We see, therefore, that though the open door has not been closed, its utilization cannot be equal for all concerned. In spite of all the attacks of the American press on this point, it has adduced no proof of unfair competition or that the Japanese Government has rendered the open door illusory. According to latest reports, moreover, American interests in Manchuria are insignificant; in 1907 there were but 36 American citizens there and only 12 more in 1908, while

the Japanese immigrants numbered 70,000 permanent settlers. Secretary Knox's proposal to neutralize the railway has reminded Russia as well as Japan that they represent a common interest in Manchuria. Russia justly insists upon retaining its road to Vladivostok, its only Pacific port; while Japan cannot forget that every kilometer of the line in its possession was won by the blood of hundreds of its patriot sons. The proposal, then, was neither fortunate nor opportune. The sphere of American interests, for that matter, lies less in Manchuria than in other portions of the vast Chinese Empire; American trade with that realm has developed immensely in the last years. We see, therefore, how greatly it is to the interest of the United States to maintain peace in the East—Asia. If the Chinese boycott caused a heavy loss to American export trade, a great complication in that section would naturally ruin that trade, which rose from \$9,992,000 in 1898 to \$22,343,000 in 1908. And Japan would gain just as little by a war with this country, since the latter is its best customer. The Japanese are as ill fitted as the Caucasians to

pursue agriculture in tropical climates. Should they, at best, gain possession of the Philippines, it would never repay the sacrifices of a great war.

In conclusion the writer sums up the present situation as follows:

It has been shown that of the three questions that have arisen or may arise between Japan and the United States, the first, the immigration question, has been actually solved. The second, that of the open door in Manchuria, cannot be a subject of concern because it is not an acute one and is always capable of being settled amicably by diplomacy. The third point, supremacy in the Pacific, is a fanciful one, as neither country aims to assert it or is in a position to do so. Everything points to a continuance of the friendly relations which have existed between the two nations for well-nigh fifty years, despite the baiting and scheming by the press and irresponsible persons, who are chiefly to blame for the unfortunate "discordance."

CHINA'S OWN OPIUM WAR

IT is now five years, less five months, since the famous Anti-Opium decree was promulgated in China (September 20, 1906); and in the interim China has had on her hands a veritable "opium war" of a totally different nature from those known by that name in history.

As early as 1729 an edict prohibiting the use of opium, and ordering the closing of the dens, had been issued; but it is not known whether it was ever enforced. How lucrative the British found the trade in the drug may be gathered from the fact that the total gain from Indian opium, or the amount paid by China and Eastern Asia for the commodity above its cost price, between 1773 and 1906, has been estimated at \$2,100,000,000. The annual revenue from the drug at the time of the issuance of the Anti-Opium decree was \$30,800,000; and that sum had to be provided for from other sources of income. It must, therefore, be admitted that China is entitled to the highest praise for her action in the matter. Prof. Edward A. Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, writing in *Everybody's* of the war which China is waging on the opium evil, says that four years ago 22,000 tons of the drug was absorbed annually by the Chinese, most of it being converted into thick smoke and inhaled by at least 25,000,000 smokers. He thinks that the pipe has a peculiar seduction for the Chinese because their lives are so bare of interest.

to their twin vices—opium-smoking and gambling—as a relief from the dreary flatness that results from casting aside most of the things which make life interesting, in the mad endeavor to maintain the largest possible number of human beings on the minimum area.

Thus the Anti-Opium edict, commanding as it did that the growth, sale, and consumption of opium should cease in the empire within ten years, was "undoubtedly the most extensive warfare on a vicious private habit that the world has ever known." To quote Professor Ross:

The colossal conflict has raged over a territory as vast as the United States. Hundreds of thousands of officials, gentry, students, merchants, and den-keepers have been drawn into it. Blood has been shed and property has been destroyed on a great scale. The stake is the lives of some millions of opium-users, to say nothing of the oncoming generations. The guerdon of victory is the assured independence of the yellow race and its eventual participation on equal terms with the white race in control of the destinies of the planet.

Professor Ross gives some amusing accounts of attempts made to evade the requirements of the edict. The most elaborate ruse was worked last season in the great interior province of Szechuan, in every county but one of which the energetic viceroy had stamped out the poppy. In this county—Fu-chow—four-fifths of the cultivated area was in poppy last spring. The scheme was worked in this manner:

They indulge in none of that innocent association of men and women which contributes such a charm to the life of the West. The Chinese take

In January, the *taotai* at Chungking, hearing that poppy had been sown despite the prohibition, visited Fu-chow with soldiers, deposed the local

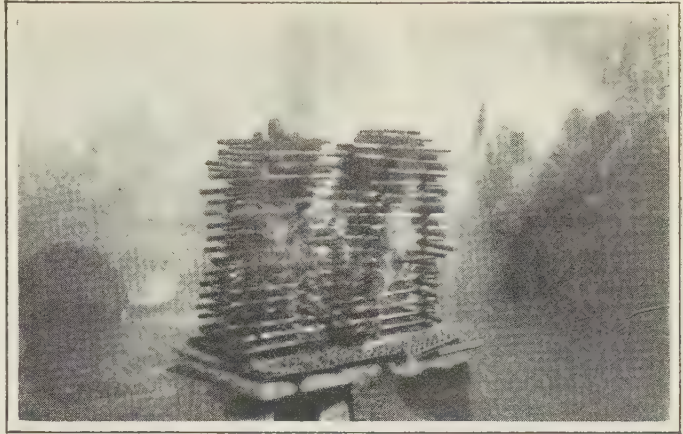
magistrate, fined him three thousand dollars, and sent the soldiers to cut down the poppy. But the farmers covered with earth the sprouts just coming up, and where the soldiers did see poppy growing, they cut off the tops, but took care to cut high enough not to kill the plant. No doubt there were "inducements." When the *taotai* departed, the farmers hastened to uncover the sprouts. Then they planted peas, beans, or wheat, so that the growth of these crops should hide the poppy bloom from any distant view. Of course there was the new mandarin to be reckoned with. But he . . . announced that he would make a personal inspection in June. If he found any poppy then, he would confiscate the land, and have the owners beaten. Dear man! He knew quite well that by June all the poppy crops would be harvested and out of sight!

Such wiles can be worked once and no more. The solid fact remains that in Szechuan, which was raising a third of the opium produced in China, the acreage has been cut down by 80 per cent. No more incontestable evidence of suppression can be offered than the great upward leap in the price of opium.

Evidence of the determination of the government to put down the national evil is forthcoming on every hand. The mandarins themselves set the example. Officials over sixty who found themselves unable to give up the habit of opium-smoking were tolerated; others were given a stated term in which to reform. If at the end of that term they were not cured, they were obliged to resign. At Fu-chow, when Professor Ross visited it last May, no one might smoke opium without taking out a permit, after proving that he had the habit. The number of the permit was posted outside his house. In Anhwei an official who went out one night disguised as a coolie and found eight dens filled with people, had the offenders bamboozed on the spot, the proprietor receiving 300 blows and the smokers 200. Numerous anti-opium societies have sprung into existence and coöperated with the officials. We read:

The societies collect and break up paraphernalia seized in their raids or given up by reformed smokers. From time to time the stock on hand is stacked up in a public place and solemnly burned to signalize the progress of the campaign. Ten such burnings have taken place; and the pipes, bowls, plates, lamps, and opium-boxes sacrificed by fire number upward of 25,000.

A year ago the founder of the Anti-Opium League reported that "between 1,000,000 and 2,000,000 places for the smoking of opium



BURNING OPIUM PIPES IN SHANGHAI

have been removed." It is now coming to be "bad form" to smoke opium. Millions are breaking off because the price of the drug has risen "clear out of their reach"; and, curiously enough, for the same reason the number of attempts at suicide has decreased. "When suicide costs as much as ten cents, it is a luxury few can afford."

The Chinese reformers now feel that their work will be impeded unless the production of Indian opium is reduced far more rapidly than at present; and it is to be hoped England will see her way to lend her aid.

But for this privileged trade, which China may not touch, opium might receive its finishing stroke this year instead of in 1916, as originally contemplated. More and more clearly it is this imported opium that blocks the way just when victory seems within the grasp of the reformers. This is a great pity, for it is the moral enthusiasm of the Chinese that has rushed the anti-opium program, and it is not in the nature of enthusiasm to wait. Public opinion is at a high pitch, but such intensity is difficult to maintain over long periods. Delay is dangerous. Some think the great crusade is nearing its crisis. With the smoking habit kept alive among the people by the privileged importation; with Turkish and Persian opium brought in to meet the shortening of the supply; with the temptation to illicit poppy-growing doubling and trebling as the price of opium jumps higher and higher, the government may fail unless England aids.

Professor Ross, besides adorning his tale, points a moral. He says:

Now, liquor is to us what opium is to the yellow man. If our public opinion and laws had been so long inert with respect to alcohol as China has been with respect to opium, we might have suffered quite as severely as have the Chinese. The lesson from the Orient is that when society realizes a destructive private habit is eating into its vitals, the question to consider is not *whether* to attack that habit, but *how*.

FACTS AND FALLACIES CONCERNING ALCOHOL

WHILE physicians and laymen alike are agreed as to the dire effects of the abuse of alcohol, there seems to be considerable difference of opinion among medical men as to its legitimate use. Prof. Graham Lusk, of Cornell University, in his annual address before the Alpha Omega Alpha Society of the University of Pennsylvania, published in the *Popular Science Monthly*, makes the statement that "alcohol may have a very considerable value as food." As is generally known, the motions of the cells of the body, which motions constitute life, are maintained at the expense of fat and carbohydrates. Professor Lusk relates the following interesting experiment in the substitution of alcohol for nutriment of an ordinary nature:

Atwater and Benedict gave a man ordinary food for thirteen days. The food contained 2496 calories, and the man destroyed materials within himself, so that he daily produced 2221 calories. On this diet, he retained within his body 33.7 grams of fat daily. Then the same man was given a diet for ten days which had the same number of calories as before, but only 1996 of these were in the ordinary food materials, whereas 500 calories were in alcohol. This quantity of alcohol is what would be found in a bottle of claret. The alcohol was given in six small doses daily. . . . The heat production during this second period amounted to 2221 calories daily, or exactly the same as in the previous normal experiment. The quantity of fat retained by the patient on the alcohol days amounted to 34.1 grams daily. It is evident from this experiment that alcohol can replace fat or carbohydrates in metabolism in accordance with its heat value. So we can say that the cells of the organism may be maintained in their vital activities by alcohol instead of by normal nutrient substances. . . . If an alcoholic beverage should contain materials other than alcohol, such as the extractive materials in Bavarian beer, the food value rises to a very considerable amount. Thus, a liter of Bavarian beer contains 450 calories. These facts, however, do not at all justify the substitution of alcohol for carbohydrates and fats in the dietary.

In cases where there is no appetite, a single glass of wine containing between 5 and 10 per cent. alcohol has induced a flow of the gastric juice, and has proved as effective as a stomachic as when much larger quantities were ingested. On the other hand, alcohol causes a change in the organism which renders it less capable of resistance to disease. The professor cites certain experiments on rabbits in which a quantity of whiskey corresponding to between 4 and 5 ounces daily for a man was administered. The results showed that the animals were much more susceptible to

pathogenic bacteria than normal animals. Alcoholic dogs, too, showed diminished resistance to distemper as compared with non-alcoholized animals.

Some time ago we noticed in this section of the REVIEW the assertion of Dr. John J. Abel of Johns Hopkins University that:

both science and the experience of life have exploded the pernicious theory that alcohol gives any persistent increase of muscular power. . . . It is well understood by all who control large bodies of men engaged in physical labor, that alcohol and effective work are incompatible.

Professor Lusk writes to the same effect. He says:

For the first few minutes after taking alcohol, it has been found that a larger quantity of physical work may be performed. This is followed, however, by a period of depression during which the quantity of mechanical energy which may be expended by the individual is greatly reduced. The sum total of the effect is very decidedly to reduce the amount of mechanical work which can be accomplished during the day. It is on this account that alcohol is no longer given to soldiers on the march in the hope of increasing their endurance. The actual result would be quite the contrary.

Experiments made with regard to the influence of alcohol on the activity of the brain show similar results.

Typesetters were used as subjects. It was found that those who had partaken of alcohol made a greater number of errors and worked less rapidly than those who were abstemious. Kraepelin has found that this effect lasts as long as twenty-four hours after alcohol has been taken. Curiously enough, those who had taken alcohol thought they were doing their work to better advantage than those who had not.

Other experiments have been made upon people, the test being the length of time which was required to memorize twenty-five lines of poetry. Here, when alcohol was taken before breakfast, it was found that the length of time required to memorize was increased 69 per cent. Also, when these individuals were requested to repeat the lines which they had learned, it was found that they did so less readily and made more errors when they had previously taken alcohol, than when they were free from the effect of this drug. It is very apparent from such experiments as these, that alcohol does not stimulate to mental activity.

As to the general effects of the abuse of alcohol—the 60 per cent. of crimes of violence due to it, besides its various activities which break up homes—Professor Lusk cites the contention of Cushny, that "if alcohol were a new synthetic drug imported from Germany and a few cases of alcoholism had been dis-

covered as resulting from it, there would be such an outcry against it that it would be forever prohibited." He cannot think that any one can listen to an exposition of the evil effects of alcohol without being willing to join in a movement for its entire prohibition, provided such a prohibition can be really effective. The trouble with such movements has been that prohibition has not in reality prohibited.

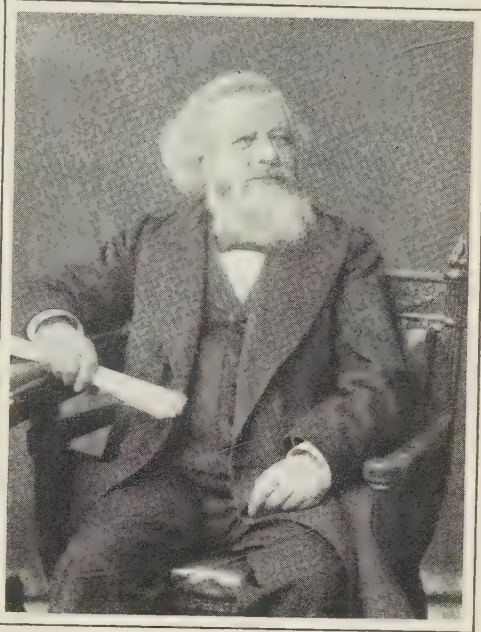
GUILMANT, A GREAT ORGANIST

BY the death of Alexandre Guilmant, the dean of French organists, both music and the musical world have sustained an irreparable loss. The number of noted organists is comparatively few at any time; and by common consent Guilmant had for many years been accorded the first position among organ virtuosos. Mr. William C. Carl, himself a well-known organist, the pupil and friend of Guilmant, contributes to the *Musical Courier* a sympathetic sketch of his old master, from which we gather some interesting details.

Félix Alexandre Guilmant (to give him his full name) was born March 12, 1837, at Boulogne-sur-Mer, where for nearly fifty years his father, Jean Baptiste Guilmant, played the organ at the Church of St. Nicholas.

Alexandre studied harmony with Gustavo Carulli and organ with Lemmens, was an eager student of musical literature, and practised diligently on the organ, often eight or ten hours at a time, with locked doors, tiring out a succession of blowers. At twelve years of age he began to substitute for his father; at sixteen he became organist in St. Joseph's at Boulogne, and began composing organ music, his first composition, a solemn mass, being performed at St. Nicholas' when Guilmant was but eighteen years of age. Other works followed in rapid succession, and in 1857, at the age of twenty, he was appointed choirmaster of St. Nicholas, conductor of a local music society, and teacher in the Boulogne Conservatory.

In 1871 Guilmant settled in Paris; and here his playing at the inaugurations of the organs at St. Sulpice and Notre Dame led to his appointment as organist of La Trinité, where he succeeded Chauvet. From this time forward his career, both at home and on his concert tours, was a succession of triumphs. He was a disciple of Bach, and his playing of the works of that great master was a revelation. Guilmant will, however, be best remembered for his improvisations. In extempore playing he stood alone. When he played at Windsor Castle, it was a specimen of his skill in improvisation that Queen Victoria especially requested. Guilmant's activity was little short of marvelous. In addition to his duties as organist and teaching—from 1896 to his death he was professor of the organ at the Paris Conservatoire—he found



ALEXANDRE GUILMANT

(The eminent organist who died last month)

time for compositions that run up into the hundreds. On one of his American tours, he wrote an organ piece while traveling from New York to Philadelphia. His "Fugue in D Major" was written in a single evening, and the "Second Meditation" one morning before breakfast.

Guilmant visited America three times: first for the World's Fair at Chicago, where he played on the great organ; again, in 1898; and the last time for his recitals at the St. Louis Exposition.

The influence and importance of these visits can probably never be fully estimated. From his first appearances in Chicago, followed by those in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, organ playing began to take on a new aspect, and has steadily grown up to the present high standard demanded and maintained in this country. He taught a deeper lesson than admiration—one of steadiness and stability and accurate knowledge as the necessary basis from which may arise inspirations of genius. . . . Several years ago the American students of the master formed themselves into the Guilmant Club, which perpetuates his work and memory.

Of the personal side of his master's character Mr. Carl writes:

Guilmant was the most lovable of men. All with whom he came in contact felt the force of his wonderful nature and personality. His vitality was unusual. He was always young, one who never felt the weight of years. His method of life and habits were such as to keep him young in spirit and activity. When he played his brains were behind his fingers, and his audiences always felt it.

For many years Guilmant's studio was in the Rue de Clichy, Paris, near La Trinité.

The organ, a one-manual, was made by his father and used by him during his early studies. Then,

in turn, his own students were taught upon it. Although the instrument had but four stops, it would show up one's faults more than the largest organs of modern build. Later he installed a large Cavaillé-Coll organ in the new music room in the Villa Guilmant, and an electric motor as well. From that time the Paris studio was abandoned, and his students gladly followed him to Meudon, a ride of twelve minutes from the Gare Montparnasse. Here he gave recitals and could accommodate four hundred at a time.

Many of his American friends will recall the time spent in his beautiful villa and the cordial reception accorded them. It was here that the end came suddenly on March 30.

SEMI-CENTENNIAL OF POLAND'S GREAT PAINTER—JOSEPH BRANDT

OF the great groups of Polish masters of the pencil which a decade ago included Julius Kossak, Simmler, Gerson, Szermętowski, and then Matejko, Grottger and Brandt, there remains now only Joseph Brandt.

In the aureola of his world-wide renown, in the luster of his great talent, the name of Brandt has shone for Polish painting for fifty years, without ceasing to be a symbol of life, fervor, rapture and youth. This long and glorious career of the distinguished artist is a continuation of victories, a chain of noble snatches of inspiration, in fine, a great love of the Fatherland expressed in plastic language.

"In the creative power of no other Polish painter perhaps," observes Mr. Piatkowski, a writer in the *Tygodnik Ilustrowany* (Warsaw), from whom we have quoted the above, "is there apparent in so high a degree as in that of Brandt the tradition of the idea of beauty on Polish soil."

In Brandt's creativeness there is most apparent the direct rise of his personality from the veins of the native sod. The horse and rider, the movement and bustle of war,—the fundamental factors of the Brandtian scenes,—here is an atom of the Polish soul that, like a great ribbon, winds through the entire course of Polish history, that leads our knightly hosts upon the field of glory, and thrills with a sympathetic note every Polish heart.

After a series of youthful aquarelles, with which he made his début in 1860 in the Warsaw Society for the Encouragement of Polish Art, Brandt, we are told by the writer already quoted, created a whole series of remarkable pictures,—*"The March of the Lisowski Troop," "The Return of the Tartars from the Battle of Tychin," "Rap, Rap, at the Window," "An Episode from the Mem-*

oirs of Pasek," and finally the magnificent battle scene, *"Chodkiewicz at the Battle of Chocim,"*—which not only popularized the name of the painter in his own country, but also gained distinction for him in Western art.

It was at the early age of nineteen that Brandt decided to enter the field of art, but his talent was such that in a few years his exceptional ability was recognized. In 1865 he received a gold medal in Paris, and four years later he won the highest prize at the universal exposition in Munich.

Brandt's artistic work has been at the same time a patriotic work. Although he has passed his entire creative career abroad,—living continuously in Munich for the last fifty years,—he has not for a moment ceased to be a loyal son of his Fatherland. By signing every work of his *"Jozef Brandt z Warszawy"* (Joseph Brandt of Warsaw), he has popularized abroad Polish art as well as his own name.

It fell to the share of Brandt to be during his entire life a link of Poland with universal art. His pictures have been on exhibition in Vienna, Paris, Berlin,—wherever Polish artists could attain profit and recognition. Among foreigners, Brandt enjoys great authority, not only as an artist but as a man.

Brandt's inward personality, continues Mr. Piatkowski, consists primarily of a great natural talent, "of a wide scale, in which are comprised feeling and poetical flight and the expression of life taken in the very act in its most various phases and the gift of characterization and the ability to sense the states of nature hidden in the recesses of specific moods." This talent is manifested in an effusion of the temperament, the verve, and the spirit, as the fundamental characteristics



THE POLISH HETMAN, POTOCKI, AT THE BATTLE OF CUDNOWE, 1660

(From the painting by Joseph Brandt)

of Brandt's creativeness. He is besides a born colorist and this gift he possesses to a degree so high that he has few rivals. His services in contemporary art are many.

In our art, his position is so prominent that we see in him not only one of those who builded the edifice of the temple of Polish painting, but also one who has assumed a leading place in that

edifice. We love him for his soul-lifting creativeness and for his noble heart, embracing the entire range of human feelings.

Celebrating the semi-centennial jubilee of the artistic activity of Brandt, says the writer in the *Tygodnik Ilustrowany* in conclusion, "we celebrate the festival of Polish art in its most distinguished representative."

THE SULTAN OF TURKEY AS THE CALIPH OF ISLAM

A REMARKABLE sign of the times as indicating the religious activity now developing in the ranks of Islam, is the publication at Tokyo, Japan, of the *Islamic Fraternity*, a four-page sheet edited and managed by Mr. M. Barakatullah of Bhopal, India, printed in English, and described as a monthly religious organ "devoted to promoting fraternal feeling among the followers of Islam and those of other sister religions." In the eleventh number of this periodical appears an article on Turkey's new ruler, the first portion of which is devoted to an explanation of what Islam really is. Islam, we are told, is:

a spiritual brotherhood, pure and simple, whose membership is not confined to any particular race

or color, but is for the benefit of humanity at large, to be shared by all sons of Adam and all daughters of Eve with equal rights and responsibilities.

Further on we read:

This example [Mohammed's] of simplicity and freedom in all details of life, including religious observances, social functions, and political performances, was faithfully followed by the immediate successors of the Prophet. In fact, in the golden age of Islam,—which was of short duration, and was the realization of the kingdom of God on earth,—liberty, equality and fraternity were actually translated into action.

We do not mean, like many narrow-minded theologians, that humanity should relapse into a crude, primitive state of semi-civilization to satisfy the Islamic conception of society and government, but we simply mean that justice, purity,

honesty, mutual help, simplicity, and solemnity should form the basic principles of society and polity in every detail of life, as was the case in the time of the Prophet and the orthodox caliphs.

With the ascension "to the proud throne of the Ottoman Turks of Mohammed V," the writer of the article under notice believes there has "commenced an era of hope and life throughout the Muslim world." In "the auspicious reign of this wise prince" there is every reason to hope for the revival of some of the noble traditions of early Islam. He "rightly deserves the title of 'Caliph of Islam.'" The present is considered to be a suitable time for the promotion of unity.

The time has come that Muslims the world over, Shiah and Sunnies alike, should find a symbol of unity in the person of the Commander of the Faithful. . . . The time has also come that the governments of Turkey, Persia, and Afghanistan should make a formal compact to stand by one another at the approach of a common danger. We appeal to the religious instinct and the patriotic sentiments of the Muslim world to realize the gravity of the situation and to come forward with practical sympathy and financial aid to help the governments of Turkey and Persia at this critical hour of need. . . . The European financiers are on the lookout to entrap both Turkey and Persia into the noose of slavery as they have done in the case

of Egypt. . . . There are three hundred million Muslims in the world. If each Muslim were to subscribe a silver coin to the "Islam Safety Fund," there could be raised in a short time enough money to set all necessary institutions in Turkey and Persia in order and to spare.

The Triple Entente between France, England, and Russia—the three powers that have Muslim subjects—is considered by the writer to be "a combination to thwart all Turkish and Persian efforts for self-improvement." Lord Curzon's remarks in his Rectorial address at Glasgow, to the effect that "Turkey, Persia, and Afghanistan constitute, in any case, that part of the East in which the West has still a considerable part to play," are commented upon adversely and as indicating that a struggle between the East and the West is imminent; and Muslims are reminded that now is the time "to decide between slavery and freedom, between perpetual degradation and glory."

The Jewish and Christian subjects of Sultan Mohammed V are assured that the rehabilitation of Muslim governments will in no way diminish the opportunities of non-Muslims to "achieve laurels of excellence in any walk of life."

GREAT DEEDS OF THE BOHEMIANS

A COMPREHENSIVE summary of the contributions made by the Bohemian people to civilization is contained in a graphic, vivid sketch appearing in a recent number of the *Outlook*. It is cast in the form of a story recounting how an oppressed and insulted Bohemian bookkeeper in an American city finally turned upon his employer, knocked him down, and then proceeded to tell him a few things that Bohemians have done. The surprise of the employer in question at the intellectual and other accomplishments of Bohemians throughout the world's history is so typical of the way such a summary would be received by the average American, that a brief record of what the injured Slav claimed for his people will be interesting. The original story is in the form of a dialogue, the facts of which are as follows:

Asserting that Bohemians have as good a right to be proud as have Americans, the Czech bookkeeper first informed his employer that a Bohemian girl refused to marry George Washington; that a Bohemian once declined a pressing invitation to be president of Harvard University; that one of the most artistic of modern operas, "The Bartered

Bride," is the work of a Bohemian (Smetana); that, up to within a few years, the composer who wrote the most beautiful and characteristic American music was Dvorák, a Bohemian; that one of the greatest generals of all history, Zizka, was a Bohemian; and that one of the most lofty spiritual leaders of all mankind, John Huss, was also a Czech. Only three out of a hundred Bohemians are unable to read and write, we are reminded further. Most of them know at least two languages thoroughly—their own and German—and many know English in addition. This is a remarkable showing when compared with the statistics of some of the other nationalities which make up our foreign population. Furthermore, even in the purely physical attainment of gymnastics, the Bohemian national "Turner" societies, popularly known as the Sokoli, are famed all over the world.

The "story," which is told by Robert Haven Schauffler, concludes by recording the complete reconciliation between the Bohemian bookkeeper and his employer.

The facts that he relates, besides enlightening others than the employer in question as to the large number of Bohemians who



JOHN ZIZKA

(The Bohemian religious leader and eminent soldier—1360-1424—who fought against the Turks and at Agincourt on the side of the English)



JOHN HUSS

(Bohemian reformer and martyr—1369-1415—friend of Wycliffe, the first to preach Christianity in the Bohemian vernacular)

have achieved fame in fields so widely separated, also serve to call the reader's attention to the difference between the unconventional

and erratic "Bohemian" of the social underworld and the man who is a native of the little kingdom in Austria-Hungary.



ANTON DVORÁK

(Composer, 1841-1904)



BEDRICH SMETANA

(Composer and Conductor, 1860 -)

FRIEDRICH SPIELHAGEN, A MIRROR OF GERMAN LIFE

WITH the death of Spielhagen a great figure in the world of German imaginative literature has passed away. He was silent, it is true, in the last decade, through domestic sorrow and physical affliction, but his name remained potent as the artistic and faithful delineator of that momentous era of German political and social development, from 1848 to 1890.

Karl Frenzel, the eminent German critic and himself a novelist of increasing reputation, gives an appreciative estimate, in the *Berlin Woche*, of Spielhagen's writings and, incidentally, of the man himself, as so much of what he wrote was an embodiment of his profound feelings and convictions.

In the years from 1860 to 1890 Spielhagen (we are informed by Herr Frenzel) was the foremost and most widely read German novelist.

His preëminence was undisputed both as regards popularity and the abundance of his creations. An indefatigable assiduity kept pace with his

lively, creative fancy. Almost every year gave birth to a new book. To be sure, they were not all gems; but from his first production, "Problematische Naturen," to the last, "Opfer," what a brilliant array of splendid creations: "In Reih und Glied," "Hammer und Amboss," "Sturmflut," and so on. In variety of matter, wealth of characters, and brilliancy of delineation these rivaled the novels of Scott, Dickens, and Balzac, and surpassed them in depth of thought and range of vision. Gutzkow, who in "Die Ritter vom Geist" and "Der Zauberer von Rom," was the first to treat political, social, and religious questions in German fiction, was followed by Spielhagen on similar lines. He it was who molded that refractory matter with a rare keenness of insight and a still rarer artistic skill. How vividly and poignantly did he portray the conflict between the nobility and the lower ranks and the social democratic agitation, with its powerful effect upon the young,—basing everything directly upon actual events and characters, and investing bare, colorless theories with the glowing hues of life.

Born in 1829, Spielhagen came under the spell of the wave of liberalism and idealism



FRIEDRICH SPIELHAGEN, WHO DIED ON FEBRUARY 25, IN HIS STUDY IN DRESDEN

that so passionately agitated the youth of Europe in 1848, and he remained true to those ideals to the end. At one time he even declared himself a republican and his "profound sense of justice made him an adversary of every form of oppression and violence."

To his imaginative impulse, his passion for depicting the men and things about him and his own inner feelings was joined the keen desire of the politician to declare and propagate his principles. He was not blind to the brilliant and alluring qualities of the aristocracy and the ruling classes. Even in his last novels, "Opfer" and "Freigeboren," he speaks of what a loss it would be to the finer side of life should a tide of social democracy sweep away such existences forever. But his sym-

pathy constantly reverted to the poor and the oppressed. Thus he depicted his heroes as rising from humble ranks through dire stress and labor to the shining heights of life or succumbing in their struggle with Fate.

In spite of his admiration of Scott, he had a certain aversion to historical novels. Yet he himself became the poetical historian of his people, the "delineator of their spiritual and material transformation."

Far transcending mere interest of plot and brilliance of description, Spielhagen made German imaginative literature the exponent of world-embracing thoughts, the teacher and mold of the people in the direction of freedom and justice.

WHAT IS MEANT BY DEATH?

NOW that our knowledge of the simpler organisms has become fairly extensive, writes Mr. Julian S. Huxley in the *Cornhill*, the biologist's idea of death is not the same as the anthropomorphic one of the average man. The phenomenon of death, as it is seen in man, thinks Mr. Huxley, may be analyzed somewhat as follows:

When John Brown's name appears in the "Deaths" column of the *Times*, what has really died—what has been lost to our world? Two things, I think we may say: first, the actual substance of his body, the protoplasm itself and all that it has given rise to—bone, gristle, hair, and the other dead things that form part of our living selves—these, though their constituent atoms persist, yet disappear as such, being gradually converted by the action of oxygen, water, and bacteria into very simple chemical compounds, or even elements; and secondly, his Individuality, meaning by that not only his character and personality, but everything by reason of which he was a man and an individual man—John Brown, to be easily distinguished from all other men. For this, the Greek word *Morphé* has recently been proposed. . . .

But has *all* of John Brown died? Has all his substance died?

The answer will not be necessarily yes. For if he has had a child, it means that one of the cells of his body, becoming detached, and uniting with a complementary female cell, has given rise to the whole of that child. From this it follows that these special reproductive cells can escape the death of the substance, for one of them, by continued growth and division into two, has built up the body of his son, and, included in this body, new reproductive cells for future generations. Thus there is a something which connects generation with generation by actual continuity of substance, and this something is usually known by Weismann's name of the Germ-plasm. This is potentially immortal. The parts, on the other hand, which are, in our experience, necessarily mortal in each genera-

tion form the body or Soma. John's individuality, however, has been completely lost to the world—is altogether dead; the sole surviving parts of him are germ-cells, and they bear no impress of his *morphé*.

Although we cannot think of a *morphé* existing without substance, we can think of substance without a *morphé*; and as a matter of fact "the *morphé* may pass out of a mass of substance—may die—and be replaced by a new one in the selfsame mass." Mr. Huxley cites the case of the *Clavellina*, sedentary marine creatures of beautiful translucency, which reach a height of nearly two inches. If small individuals of this species be put in a dish and the water not changed, after some days they shrink, and the organs get simpler and simpler until an embryonic condition is reached. All activity ceases, even the heart's action stopping. Yet the mass is not dead—only asleep. If now put into clean water, it will gradually expand and finally attain once more to the state of a fully formed and healthy *Clavellina*. The *morphé* which disappeared has not come back again; it is gone, it is dead, and a new *morphé* has arisen in the identical mass of protoplasm. A similar process, Mr. Huxley says, occurs in the single-celled Protozoa.

In these two cases, what really happens is that the whole of the substance goes back to an embryonic, unspecialized condition in which it can be compared to germ-plasm. It is as if John Brown on his death-bed were to have his tissues pass into a state of flux, and then get simpler and simpler, until you would have to say, This is no longer a man, but merely a mass of man's protoplasm, and as if finally this mass were to redifferentiate up again—into John Brown, junior, with an individuality as obviously new as if he had arisen in the usual way from one undifferentiated cell instead of many.

Noticing Weismann's well-known view of the Immortality of the Unicellular Organisms, and the insistence of that scientist on the absence of what we are accustomed to look on as true or total death, Mr. Huxley refers to the method of reproduction by simple splitting in two, as in the Euplotes. In the Infusoria, also, after a long period of reproduction by this method, there occurs a sexual process between two individuals, called conjugation.

Recent workers have experimentally shown that Infusoria may be bred through a very large number of generations indeed without conjugation (and therefore without death). This they have done by feeding them on a different diet day by day, or, when they appeared poorly (often a preliminary to conjugation), by providing various chemical or physical stimuli, adding beef-tea to their water, for instance, or taking them on a railway journey to give them a good shaking-up. These experiments (discontinued only after hundreds of generations, when it seemed clear they might be made to go on forever) seem to show that functioning protoplasm is not in itself mortal, but that the cause of death is to be found among the external conditions; for by altering these death may be put off, it would seem, indefinitely.

In further illustration of death due to external causes, and not to anything inherent, Mr. Huxley points to some of the enormous trees of the world—the huge Dragon tree of

the Canary Islands, several thousand years old, blown down by a tempest in 1868; the Baobab tree of Cape de Verde, over 5000 years old, etc. These were in a state of nature. Where man has stepped in, the chances of continued life seem indefinite, as in the case of the banyan tree in the Calcutta Botanical Gardens, which now covers more than two acres of ground and shows no signs of decay, the new roots being ensheathed in bamboo tubes until they are imbedded in the ground.

It appearing that functioning protoplasm is not necessarily subject to death, two questions occur: "Why did death arise?" And, "Death having arisen, is it possible to postpone his coming—for a short space,—for a long space,—or even forever?" Mr. Huxley thinks that "the increasing difficulty of repairing any damage to the body gives us a reason for the origin of death." In answer to the second question, Metchnikoff's or a similar system of eating cultures which would prevent putrefaction in the intestine, "would be the first step; as more was discovered and acted upon, we should be able to extend our lives ever further and further." Assuming that our contention of the potentiality of all protoplasm is true, we should at last no doubt attain to the state of never dying.

WHAT HAS THE THIRD RUSSIAN DUMA DONE?

POPULAR confidence in the work of the Duma has been decreasing steadily in Russia since the beginning of its third session, in 1907. V. A. Maklakov, a noted Moscow lawyer, a leader of the Constitutional Democratic party, and member of the last two Duma sessions, endeavored to explain to his constituents in a recent speech why the parliament failed in its work. The speech was published in a recent number of the *Russkaya Mysl* (Russian Thought).

It might be well to recall here the party composition of the last session. The majority, occupying the center of the Chamber, are Octobrists. This party was formed shortly after the famous Freedom Manifesto of the Czar on October 31, 1906, and was made up of moderate conservatives who did not wish to change the form of government. They desired to go no further than the liberties granted by the above Manifesto.

The Constitutional Democratic party (popularly known in Russia as "*Kadety*"—K. D.) constitutes the next largest part and, together with the few Socialists, occupies the

left of the chamber. These are thorough radicals. The right is rather densely populated by reactionaries from the nobility, clergy, and peasant class. As a whole the house is controlled by the Octobrists, by virtue of their majority and the fact that they secure the support of the left in more or less radical measures and that of the right in conservative ones. Accordingly, Mr. Maklakov devoted his speech to the activity of the Octobrists. He said:

You know already that our hopes were totally deceived. The third session disappointed us bitterly. Yet the common accusation that this session is fruitless is inaccurate, for the Duma, instead of being fruitless, is harmful. It actually aggravates conditions instead of bettering them. I shall try to be fair, however, to its activity and especially to those on whom the responsibility of its work lies—the Octobrists. The Octobrists pledged themselves to realize the Freedom Manifesto in Russian life, politically and economically. Among them there were men who wished it deeply and sincerely, who knew and understood what was to be done. The entire burden of responsibility is theirs, because they did exactly the opposite of what they intended to do, and because they ceased to be themselves, *i. e.* Octobrists. This

did not happen suddenly, and it will be interesting for you to follow the course of affairs which led to the downfall of that party as such.

Continuing, Mr. Maklakov outlines the work of the third session by recalling the procedure of adoption of the most important measures. First there came the "inviolability of person" law, one of those measures whose lack is so painfully felt in Russian life. This very law was the block upon which the first two sessions of the Duma ended their short lives. Says the writer already quoted:

This measure was, however, carried through this time by a united vote of the center and opposition on the left. It was given over to a committee for "further development," from which safe abode it has not yet emerged, while the reaction continues with its summary arrests, exiles, and innumerable executions. But not the least amount of political improvement can be brought about at the present time in Russia by legislation alone, so hopeless is the absence of desire to follow laws honestly on the part of the administration, which ceaselessly violates already established laws and manufactures its own code to suit the action of the moment. As it is, the existing code of laws is very far from being bad, but the best part of it remains a dead letter in application to life. The next law passed was the one establishing elected petty country judges instead of the formerly appointed ones. But this rather radical measure was totally spoiled by the Octobrists, who meekly acquiesced in the demand of the government that there be an exceedingly heavy property qualification for this office.

The greatest problem before the Duma was the land question, the tremendous cry of the eighty million peasants being "*Zemly!*" ("Give us land!"), heard at all times and all over the enormous empire of the Czar. The platform of the Constitutional Democratic party could dispose of the problem in one way only, and that was by expropriation of land from the imperial family.

When the Constitutional Democrats dominating the first session made demands to that effect the government was incensed at them and declared that the demands were inadmissible, as they violated the sacred rights of private property. Yet the famous law of the 9th (22nd) of November, (1906) proposed by the government and accepted by the Octobrist majority of the Duma, was built on precisely the same basis,—compulsory expropriation of land. But its aim was in the opposite direction. It actually took away the scraps of land from the poor ruined peasant and gave them over to a more or less well-to-do peasant, who is in a great minority as compared with the former. The distress and desolation wrought by this measure can hardly be estimated.

Mr. Maklakov says that he does not wonder after the passage of this one law at the great increase of crime and the rapid progress of epidemics among the peasant class.

The vast majority of store clerks in Russia

did not know until a very late date what Sunday rest is. One of the few good measures passed by the third session was the one establishing Sunday rest for the store clerks. What came after the small series of radical measures, however, obliterated their good work. The fall of the Octobrists was hastened. Urged on by the ministry they were driven to destruction, because the Premier was all the time demanding new concessions and new renunciations of the principles of their program. They finally had to choose between the government and the constitution, the two very things they tried so hard to conciliate into one but failed, and finally abandoned the Freedom Manifesto to follow Premier Stolypin's policy, which threw away the principles of constitution as soon as they were born. Two major steps separated the Octobrists and the constitution: the resolution concerning the prerogatives of the monarch, and the Finnish question. The first resolution came after the Octobrists and the reactionaries had accepted Stolypin's statement in the Duma that the monarch was free to amend existing laws as it seemed fit to him. This was literally opposed to the statement in the Manifesto by which the Czar pledged himself to consult the National Legislature on such matters. In the discussion of the Finnish question the Octobrists decided that the Duma had a perfect right to legislate on Finnish affairs without the consent of the Finnish Parliament, which decision was a gross violation of both Finnish and Russian constitutions. Another great anti-constitutional step made by the Octobrists was the aid they offered to the government in trying to minimize the work of the "*zemstvo*," the only form of local self-government existing in Russia, by refusing to raise the necessary appropriations in 1908. The speaker concludes:

New concessions by the Octobrists are to follow in the future. The Duma is on the wrong track. If this state of affairs keeps up the government is certain to bring the Duma, the only visible remnant of constitutionalism, to self-annihilation and to reestablish the old autocracy in full legal power. The only remedy is in the organized national consciousness working for a totally new political state. In the meanwhile the Duma ought to realize it is on the wrong track, and to find out who are its real friends and foes.

It might well seem—indeed it is actually true—that the third session of the Duma had more of an opportunity to relieve the social and economic sufferings of the country than either of the preceding sessions.

FIRE PREVENTION IN CITY BUILDINGS

MR. EDWARD F. CROKER, who last month resigned as Chief of the New York Fire Department, after twenty-seven years of continuous service, gives some valuable suggestions for fire prevention in a recent article in *Leslie's Weekly*. During Mr. Croker's long and varied experience in fighting the fires of our largest American city, he has made a special study of the phase of prevention, and his observations on this subject are therefore of particular interest. In Mr. Croker's opinion the great loss of life that resulted from the recent shirtwaist factory fire in New York City may readily occur again, unless proper precautions are taken. "The problem to be solved," he says, "is to prevent fires and such losses of life in buildings already erected, as it is impossible to make a law that will retroact in the present class of buildings."

All buildings used for manufacturing purposes, known as sweat-shops, factories and so forth, should be immediately provided with sufficient outside balcony fire escapes, thoroughly up to date, with automatic fire alarms, fire extinguishers and buckets filled with water, which, properly used, will extinguish any fire in its infancy. Fire drills by a competent drill master, such as are provided in public schools, should be introduced. Lofts and floors ought not to be permitted to be overcrowded and there should be at least ten square feet to each person. During the occupancy of such buildings, stairways and halls should be well lighted. From observation I find that many of the buildings referred to are in a littered and unclean condition; in other words, a state of poor housekeeping.

With regard to building regulations for the erection of new buildings Mr. Croker says:

I would suggest that all such buildings be provided with what are technically called "independent towers," with entrances, which should be well lighted, to each floor on the outside of the building. All buildings should be made absolutely fireproof, by the elimination of wooden trims of every description, including floors. All doors should open outward, no partitions should be allowed around doorways leading to stairways or elevator shafts. All fire escapes should be continuous on the buildings, with treads of not more than eight inches and provided with hand rails. The platforms of all fire escapes and the doorways leading out to them should be on a level with the floor.

Mr. Croker is convinced that the fire department should have the power to compel compliance with the proper conditions, as it is by nature and experience best fitted to know what is necessary in all matters having to do with the prevention of or escape from fire in any way.

In Mr. Croker's opinion, theaters and other places of amusement are well provided with fire precautions, all that the law and skill can do having been done for the safety of the people who visit such places, but the men and women who are housed together in large buildings, not for their own pleasure but because they have to work, are not equally protected. The trouble with many of these "loft" buildings is that while they are often "fireproof" in construction, they are so filled with inflammable material that they are by no means "deathproof." Moreover, many of them have no fire escapes of any description, and only the better ones are supplied with sprinkler systems. Even if such buildings are fireproof, they should be provided with fire escapes; "a building with a stock of an inflammable nature in it is not fireproof, whatever its construction. It holds the heat all the more if it is well built and becomes more of a furnace in which human beings may be roasted to death."

While fire escapes may be objected to as spoiling the appearance of buildings, this is a small consideration when compared with the possible sacrifice of human lives. "If there are to be workshops, sweatshops, factories—whatever you choose to call them in the city—they must be safe; that is the first consideration. And to be safe they must have fire escapes—lots of them, front and back both." The stairways should be wide enough for at least two persons to go down abreast and enclosed with netting to prevent panic-stricken crowds from tumbling over the hand rails.

Tenement houses also come under the head of buildings dangerous from their liability to fire and loss of life. Mr. Croker points out the imperative need in this case of effective coöperation between the fire, health, and street-cleaning departments of a city, particularly with regard to the removal of rubbish and combustible material. Such material is often allowed to accumulate in the cellars of tenement and apartment houses, and where found by the fire or health department inspectors should be ordered removed in twenty-four hours. If not promptly removed, the street cleaning department should do so at the expense of the owner or tenant. Mr. Croker believes that the first story above the cellar of all tenements should be fireproofed, and that there should be no entrance to the cellar inside the building, as such inside entrance acts as a flue and pathway for

flames. Good lighting of hallways, stairs, and cellars is an additional factor in fire prevention in buildings of this character.

Another element of danger is the height of buildings in a large city like New York. This height should be strictly limited.

Fire cannot be fought successfully with any apparatus we now have at a height greater than 85 or 90 feet, and the high pressure, so valuable in many ways, does not affect this particular side of the problem.

Fire, to be fought with success, must be directly attacked with water. The stream should be horizontal or nearly so. We can throw a stream plenty high enough to reach most upper stories, but it is a slanting stream, in many cases almost perpendicular. It merely wets the outside walls and the window sills, or perhaps a bit of the ceiling, and falls back. It is worse than useless. With the water towers we can put in a horizontal stream at the height of seventy-five feet and do good execution. It penetrates. Buildings higher than this limit are dangerous in proportion to their elevation.

WOMEN JOURNALISTS OF PARIS

AN increasing number of young Parisiennes are entering journalism. Just how they work and in general, how they fare, is described in a chatty article in a recent issue of the *Grande Revue*, by Mme. Marc Heilys, herself one of the craft.

In the first place, she classifies the women literary workers of the French capital into three categories—rich women who write for pleasure and who have at their disposal the reviews which do not pay for articles; women who desire to earn a little money in order to add a little luxury to their comforts; and women writers without any other resources than their earnings. Her article is devoted to a consideration of the third class—women who are obliged to work and who cannot write when they like or what they like. Their business is to write to order what will sell and what will sell at once. They do not dream of glory; success is for the most alert. The most fortunate may earn from \$800 to \$1000 a year.

When circumstances compelled the writer to work for herself it was a great humiliation to her to discover that her fairly solid education left her comparatively disarmed for the battle of life. She had a variety of attainments, but they were as incomplete as they were varied, and there was not a single subject that she felt competent to teach. But she had always had an idea of writing down her impressions, and like many others she is an improvised literary woman.

In Paris it is very difficult to enter the profession of journalism. Men hold the ground inch by inch, even to the point of sometimes writing fashion articles over feminine signatures. The time of the writer's début was when the *Fronde*, the newspaper edited by women, made its appearance. Absolutely unknown, she offered her services, and as the editor happened to be short of copy was permitted to write some articles. She did not agree with all the ideas of the *Fronde*;

but she always thinks of the paper with gratitude for coming to her aid. Moreover, she was well paid for her articles, and she acquired confidence in herself and was encouraged to further activity.

A better profession than reporting for the papers is reporting for the illustrated magazines. These publications are very numerous, and the space at one time devoted to literature is now devoted to news. Personal notes and notes on private life, interviews, etc., play a large and important part. Usually the reporters for magazines are not attached to the staff. Their work is intermittent, but it is much better paid than the same work for the daily papers. Cab fares are also allowed. But the women reporters require to be provided with toilettes little in harmony with their financial condition, as elegance at receptions, fêtes, etc., counts for much in their success.

The writer says she was more attracted to the reviews than to the journals, and in ten years she has contributed a large number of articles to Paris publications. The people at the offices of the reviews are a different world. The men are more polite and courteous, the writer is received amiably, and if the article offered is not always accepted, it is at least read, and sometimes a little good advice is given. It is quite a mistake to believe that a recommendation is needed to reach the directors of a great French review. Nothing is more easy than access to these gentlemen. All that is necessary is that the writer must be at the office at the stated hour and await his or her turn. As far as this writer's experience goes, the editor always thinks of the interests of his review first. Furthermore, she says she has never found any attempt to prevent women contributing articles. Women contributors to reviews are much commoner than people suppose. The editor of one of the most important reviews of Paris

once showed her a number with more than half of the contents written by women under masculine names.

In the offices of the illustrated magazines and fashion papers in France women are generally preferred. For equal work they are paid less than men would be, but even were they paid as much, their work is worth more. The good houses give a fortnight's holiday in the year, and the rate of pay is from \$30 to \$60 a month. The work is most trying

for the health, and the women live in perfect fear of being replaced by men. Now and then, by way of stimulating their failing energies, the head of the office will mutter something about women's work being very irregular—"Better pay a little more and have men." In such places the war between the sexes is often intense. The men are always ready to pick out the faults of "those ladies," and the ladies resent the smallest attempt at masculine intrusion.

THE RACES MYTH

M. JEAN FINOT, who has already dealt with "The Prejudice of Races," publishes in the mid-March number of *La Revue* (Paris) the first instalment of a paper entitled "The Romance of Races," in which he contends that unity of races is not due to ties of blood, but to unity of ideals, culture, etc.

The Tower of Babel, he writes, was a mere plaything compared to the formation of modern nations. In the vast laboratories in which nations are created physiological differences disappear with surprising rapidity. The facilities for intercourse, international commerce, and world-thought tend more and more to unite the aspirations of humanity. We speak of European literature, the interests of the white civilization, and the union of the Old and the New World. The conception of superior or inferior races seems to have had its day. Japan has triumphantly entered, on a footing of equality, the European concert, after having concluded treaties of peace with the two nations at the head of civilization—namely, Britain and France. China is becoming a parliamentary and a military nation, and the Chinese people will soon be able to inspire respect for their religious belief and the color of their skin. The evolution of the negroes is going on at a disconcerting pace, and when we remember their ethnic origin we can only marvel at the progress they have made during the last sixty years.

But nations and patriotic feeling have no ethnic origins whatever. To define the French of to-day as people united by blood would be a scientific and a political lie. There are still people who believe that the French

are of the Gallic race, forgetting that it is the Germans rather than the French who have any claims to a Gallic origin. But it is not possible to say to which race the French belong, for the French of to-day are the product of some sixty races who have settled in France. They include Aquitanians, Silurians, Iberians, Basques, Helvetians, Vandals, Belgians, Visigoths, Franks, Jews, and many more. In more recent times the diminution of the birth-rate renders France more liable than any other country to receive large contingents of foreign immigrants. While the number of foreigners residing in England is said to be four per 1000 and in Germany eight per 1000, in France it is probably about forty. The foreign population in France increases thirteen times as fast as the population which has lived in the country for several generations, so that the French people are the result of a very complex mixture of races. But that does not prevent France from taking a very high place among the great nations of the world. Unity of blood has nothing to do with the moral and intellectual worth of a people. Quite otherwise. Mixture of races improves a nation.

Gobineau has endeavored to belittle the greatness of France to the profit of Germany. To him the great glory of Germany is that she has preserved the Aryan type. M. Finot, however, has already shown that the Aryan race and Aryan civilization are a simple invention. But the Aryan legend is not yet dead. Prejudices, like all lies, die hard, and it may be that for several centuries to come humans will continue to quarrel about their pretended Aryan origin.



INVESTORS' PROTECTION

WITH OTHER NEWS OF BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

Who Owns the Industrials?

A MERCHANT in Newark, N. J., was talking the other night about Wall Street and the part it plays in the carrying on of the country's business. A manufacturer, one of the men with whom he was talking, entered the discussion with some statements that were novel and interesting.

"Here," he said, "in this town, there are, I suppose, several hundred industrial factories manufacturing everything or pretty nearly everything that you could think of. Out of these hundreds of factories there are at the most three or four that have ever come in touch with Wall Street. If you leave out the plants of the General Electric and the Westinghouse Electric, you have eliminated about the only two that the speculative public of Wall Street is even slightly interested in, for they are about the only ones represented in the active list of stocks traded in there.

"I guess this is pretty nearly true of any industrial city in the United States, in a general way. The great manufacturing interests of the country are still, in spite of the economists, carried on in a huge number of scattered plants; and Wall Street knows nothing about the scattered plants of the country. They are too small. Most of them, in the first place, do not require one million dollars or more apiece for their operation, and most of those that do are owned and financed right in the home locality.

"You would find out how true this is, if you ever tried to raise money for a small industrial in Wall Street. You can find plenty of dealers who will take an option on whatever you want to sell and tie you up for a year or two; but you will not find many people who are willing to put up the money you need and go ahead with the proposition on the same basis that the big banking houses finance the big industrials.

"I do not mean to criticize the Wall Street way of doing it. The business of Wall Street is to look out for the individually important financial undertakings of the industrial world, and I think it would be a serious mistake if Wall Street changed its ways and made it easy for the small industrials of the country to raise money from strangers for their

financing. There would possibly be more danger in this than there is in the present condition, which makes it somewhat difficult to start any new industry with the money of the people unless it is an industry that has already really demonstrated its right to exist."

How a Solid Industry Gets Money

THE experienced manufacturer of the story told above was talking as a plain common-sense man of his class, who has learned how dangerous a thing it is to start a new untried industry. He also knows very well that any established, solid industry of any sort can almost always, if its management is governed with ordinary common sense, obtain all the money it needs for legitimate industrial enterprise.

The bank, of course, is the first resource, and it is to the bank that any manufacturer turns for advice and for practical assistance when he contemplates expanding an already established business in any legitimate direction. If, for instance, a maker of a certain line of steel products finds that with the same selling force and the same overhead charge, he can handle two other lines of a similar manufacturing industry, he naturally wants to go into those lines. Perhaps an addition to his factory is required, and some additional machinery and a substantial increase in his pay-roll.

He goes to the bank, usually his own bank, which has always kept his working balance and financed his current needs against bills receivable, and talks it over with the responsible officials of the bank. He explains just what he wants to do and lays before the bank men the plan in detail, laying special emphasis upon the amount of additional money that will be required week by week for pay-rolls, maintenance, etc., and the initial expenditure of capital.

The bank official should be a good live man who understands the needs of the industries in his city, and especially of those that have carried deposits in his bank. It is his business to check industrial extravagances, but it is also his business to lubricate the wheels of industry with money, provided the outlook justifies it. He will give such a project

serious thought before he will give a final reply on it.

In nine cases out of ten, if the proposition is on its face a sound business proposition, the bank will be able and willing to give assistance. It may not be prepared itself to finance the necessary capital charges, but it will be able to suggest where money can be raised, not only to buy the new equipment necessary, but also to strengthen the average daily balance in the bank to a point which will justify the bank in supplying the necessary working capital for the new branch of the enterprise. Perhaps some private clients who like to dip into industrial investments will be willing to entertain the proposition of putting up the necessary capital. This is very often the case. May be the bank officer can refer the manufacturer to some trust company with which the bank has affiliations, which will finance a loan for a longer or shorter period on bonds or stock as collateral, and so enable the manufacturer to go ahead without waiting for the ultimate sale of his securities.

In some cases, of course, the manufacturer himself is able to collect the amount of private capital that he needs either from friends or business associates. Then it is a relatively easy matter to finance the capital charges necessary; but even in such cases as this the bank should be taken into the manufacturer's confidence. After all, the bank is really a sort of silent partner in all manufacturing business. It should learn enough, at least, to make it certain that it will be willing to expand his line of discounts, if suitable deposits are made, to meet the expansion of the pay-roll.

Financing the New Project

IT is an entirely different matter when some man, full of a new scheme, comes into town to get a start. If the project is to manufacture some well-known, staple line of goods, and if the man is known somewhere as a substantial individual, it is almost always possible to interest manufacturing capital, and to get the backing or at least the assistance of the established banking interests of the place.

If, however, the line of manufacturing is some new invention, some small novelty, some unknown substance, difficulties pile up at every step. Men who have spent their lives in the manufacturing of staple products seldom have any taste whatever for the manufacturing of specialties. Men who have made fortunes in the hard service of indus-

try, don't want to risk any part of those fortunes in backing up somebody's dream or somebody's whim. The banks, accustomed to staple industries and not dealing any more than they can help in futures, turn their backs upon innovations in the manufacturing world.

The would-be manufacturer, finding the usual sources of capital closed to him, turns to the public. Perhaps he goes first to one of the big banking houses that handle investment securities. Invariably they deal with him tersely, telling him simply that their customers are their clients and that they could not possibly offer to these clients the securities of a new, untried industrial venture.

He turns away from the established banking houses that have clients; and, perhaps, after a while, he finds a so-called banking house or institution that is willing to take a chance with the money of its customers. The house that will do this, as a rule, is a house that does its selling by extensive newspaper advertising or by the scattering of cheap circular matter over the country. It may not necessarily be dishonest or disreputable; but it very seldom has any lofty idea of the fiduciary capacity of a banking house. The people who buy from it are customers, not clients.

The manufacturer is rather astounded at first to find that his patron wants about 50 per cent. or a little less of all the money that comes in from its campaign. It claims with truth that it needs about that much to make the campaign profitable. Instead of putting out \$100,000 of bonds or stock, the manufacturer finds that he has to put out about twice that amount and to give away a large bonus of common stock with all the bonds or preferred stock that he sells. Usually he is fortunate if he manages to hold voting control of the concern and to retain its management, if it becomes a going concern.

Where the Investor Comes In

CLEARLY, in this very brief outline of the way money is raised for private industry, the real truth about industrial investment is laid bare. The kind of industrial investment that the sound bank will sponsor or will place in the hands of its own clients, is almost sure to be a first-class industrial investment. The kind of securities that the established manufacturer will invite his friends, relations and business connections to go into, is apt to be very good; but it would be better if he also had some inde-

pendent financial judgment upon it, for the manufacturer is notoriously a bad judge of investment values.

The kind of industrial securities that established, reputable and honest dealers in securities will take, on a reasonable commission, say 15 per cent. or less, and place with their own clients and with the public by advertising or otherwise, is also apt to be good, perhaps really better than the kind that is sold privately to the friends of the manufacturer and his own people. It is better at least in that it will have a wider market and be more likely to be acceptable as collateral in various banks in various parts of the country. In these latter days a great deal of the financing of relatively large but not gigantic industrials has been accomplished in this way; and he would be a rash critic who would class it as anything but legitimate financial business.

The class of industrial financing that is refused by the established banks, condemned by those who have made their fortunes in industry, scoffed at by the banking-houses who take a pride in their service to their clients, and accepted only by those who seek to sell the stock or bonds to strangers with whom they never hope to have dealings again, is a perfect pitfall of the investment world.

Four Classes of Industrials

THE lines indicated in the above brief division of the industrial field are clearly drawn. Between the first, second and third the division is slight; for very often an industrial security fits all three; but between the third and the fourth the gulf is as wide as the gulf can be. Industrial stocks of the fourth class have no intrinsic value, are usually based on prospects alone, and are usually sponsored by totally irresponsible people and institutions.

The investor who is closely in touch with manufacturing industry very often finds the first and the second class extremely comfortable and extremely profitable. The general investor who is not closely in touch with anything, will find in the third class a very fair medium for investment, and may feel pretty safe in buying these securities provided he uses common sense and discrimination.

The man or woman who buys into the fourth class, simply takes a long speculative chance with the money, just as he or she would if they bought mining stocks or any form of wild-cat security.

Perhaps the most numerous stocks and

bonds of this character are those that represent new inventions. An instrument may be most excellent, but the stock of the company that intends to make it is almost sure to be an out-and-out "gamble." A new product may be destined to revolutionize some branch of the industrial world, but in nine cases out of ten the stocks that represent it may belong in the "get-rich-quick" class.

The private investor, seeking legitimate uses for his money, will shun the securities of companies that represent inventions destined "to equal the record of the Bell Telephone," and substances "destined to supplant steel in the building trades." They are traps for the unwary.

The Figures of It

TO illustrate why it is that the average industrial manufacturer considers Wall Street a place in which he plays no part, the following figures are taken from the census report for manufactures in 1905. They show in the first column the value of the products of industrial plants; in the second, the number of plants in each tabulation; and in the third the aggregate capital of these plants.

	Number	Capital
Up to \$5,000.....	71,162	\$165,317,454
Up to \$20,000.....	72,806	531,130,513
Up to \$100,000.....	48,113	1,654,931,649
Up to \$1,000,000.....	22,281	5,550,459,933
\$1,000,000 and up.....	1,900	4,784,426,124

It is perfectly obvious that Wall Street knows little or nothing about any of the plants whose total gross products are worth less than \$1,000,000 a year; that is a "small" industrial business. There are, of course, a few industrial securities even on the Stock Exchange that represent plants whose production is under \$1,000,000; but most of them are under that figure because they have declined very greatly since Wall Street became interested in them.

This being so, it appears that out of 216,262 manufacturing plants in the United States and reported to the census, less than 2000 have even a bowing acquaintance with Wall Street. This is less than 1 per cent.

The New Industrial Flotations

NEVERTHELESS, in spite of the fact that only a very small proportion of industrial America calls upon Wall Street for funds, the past two years has seen something over \$150,000,000 of industrial preferred stocks floated in the Wall Street market. These securities have ranged all the way from tried

and seasoned issues to absolutely new flotations.

The following list was published about the turn of the year by the *Wall Street Journal* to represent the stocks of this class that had come into the Street in the preceding eighteen months:

	Rate	Amount
American Woolen.....	7	\$5,000,000
Republic Iron & Steel.....	7	4,583,000
General Chemical.....	6	4,000,000
American Light & Power.....	6	5,500,000
Goodyear Tire & Rubber.....	7	1,500,000
B. F. Sturtevant Co.....	6	1,250,000
Cluett & Peabody.....	6	2,000,000
McCrum, Howell.....	7	2,050,000
San Diego Cons. Gas & Elec.....	7	1,000,000
Electrical Securities Co.....	5	1,500,000
Oklahoma Gas & Electric.....	7	1,000,000
General Motors.....	7	3,000,000
Continental Can.....	7	1,000,000
United States Rubber.....	8	3,500,000
Portland Gas & Coke.....	7	1,000,000
MacArthur Bros.....	7	2,000,000
American Pneumatic Service.....	7	1,500,000
Indian Refining.....	7	2,000,000
International Ag. Corp.....	7	5,400,000
Underwood Typewriter.....	7	4,500,000
Kansas Gas & Electric.....	7	1,100,000
Pennsylvania Steel.....	7	4,087,500
Frisbie Stanchfield Knit.....	7	1,000,000
U. S. Motors.....	7	10,250,000
American Brake Shoe.....	7	1,000,000
Consumers Power.....	7	1,360,000
U. S. Radiator.....	7	2,500,000
Welsbach Co.....	7	2,000,000
May Department Stores.....	7	5,000,000
Lord & Taylor.....	8	1,000,000
Dodge Mfg. Co.....	6	1,000,000
B. F. Goodrich Co.....	7	2,000,000
Sierra Electric.....	6	1,000,000
Springfield, O., Lt. & Power.....	6	1,000,000
DuPont Powder.....	5	1,682,000
Pierce, Butler & Pierce.....	7	1,000,000
Cities Service Corp.....	6	1,000,000
Pittsburg Steel.....	7	7,000,000
Dartmouth Mills.....	5	600,000
Acme White Lead & Color.....	6	750,000
Chapman Valve.....	7	700,000
Colonial Steel.....	7	750,000
Scranton Electric.....	6	500,000
Maverick Mills.....	6	750,000
Roberts, Johnson & Rand Shoe.....	6	625,000
Pfister & Vogel Leather.....	5	500,000
Michigan Light.....	6	750,000
Waltham Watch.....	6	500,000
Hood Rubber.....	7	500,000
Esmond Mills.....	6	650,000
American Piano.....	7	600,000
Gunther's Sons.....	6	500,000
Incandescent Light & Stove.....	7	500,000
Childs Restaurant.....	7	700,000
Pennsylvania Rubber.....	7	500,000
Ill. Valley Gas & Electric.....	6	500,000
U. S. Worsted.....	7	500,000
Crocker Wheeler.....	5	510,000
J. B. Clow & Sons.....	7	500,000
Richardson Paper Co.....	6	500,000
Hoosac Cotton Mills.....	6	750,000
Miscellaneous under \$500,000.....		3,482,000
Total.....		\$114,379,000

Is Western Land Too High?

TEN years ago a farmer out in central Kansas wished to retire from active life. He sold his 240-acre farm to his just-married son for \$5000, mostly on time.

"What a shame for the old man to take advantage of the boy," said the neighbors. "It's more than the land's worth."

Two years later the son sold the farm for \$7100. The new owner in a year sold for \$8500. The farm has changed hands six times since then, always at climbing figures, and its last sale was for \$26,500—this, too, without any material improvements having been made.

It is an extreme instance, but the census reports just made show these increases in the decade in the value of Western farms: Missouri, 107 per cent.; Iowa, 123 per cent.; Kansas, 188 per cent.; South Dakota, 376 per cent.; Montana, 394 per cent.

Some students of conditions declare that these increases are too large for safety, that it is unreasonable for land out in the prairie States to change hands at \$75 to \$100 an acre. They caution against a collapse and warn investors against securities based upon such appraisals. The fact remains, however, that shrewd, hard-headed farmers who know the worth of land are buying Western farms at such figures. For a decade, critics have warned that "land is too high" and yet every year has shown a higher level—and those who invested have made money. That such increase should go on indefinitely is, of course, impossible. A permanent figure was certain to be reached when the income-producing ability of the land paid only a fair interest on the investment. This Western land has been doing, and with a price level for products approaching that of the present it is certain to continue.

Ten years ago loan companies would put out only \$2000 or less on a good quarter section of Western land; now they place \$4000 or \$5000 on the same property. On April 1 one of the leading life insurance companies reduced its rates from 6 per cent. to 5½ per cent. on farm loans in eastern Kansas and Nebraska. It with others is increasing its loans yearly. Evidently it is not alarmed concerning the permanency of land values. The statements of three companies show \$153,400,000 now loaned on farm mortgages in States west of the Mississippi River. These loans are made after careful investigation by expert appraisers, usually from sections removed from the location of

the property. The companies' continuance in this business indicates their confidence in the Western farm's progress.

Insurance Company Bond Buying

THE reports of the big insurance companies do not contain any great amount of comfort for dealers in bonds. They indicate in fact one of the reasons why such dealers are finding more and more of their buying among individual investors rather than among the institutions.

The reports of the year indicate a wide discrepancy in the investment habits of various companies. The New York Life Insurance Company, for instance, has 65 per cent. of its assets invested in bonds; while the Northwestern Mutual has only 25 per cent. and the Manhattan Life only about 16 per cent. The discretion of the executive committees of these companies is very wide and nobody can force them to buy what they do not want. It is notable that the companies with headquarters in the financial district in New York look with greater favor upon bond investments than the companies with headquarters outside that district.

Another feature of the reports bearing upon the same point, is the heavy growth of the habit of borrowing by policy holders on their insurance. The New York Life, the Equitable, the Mutual Benefit, the Northwestern, and the Manhattan show a total of nearly \$234,000,000 loaned upon policies, at an average return of a little more than 5 per cent. As insurance company investments these loans are, of course, excellent for they give the best kind of security, namely, a reduction of the liabilities of the insurance companies themselves, so that if the loans are not repaid they are balanced automatically in the funds of the insurance company without even the expense of foreclosure or legal proceedings to collect the loan.

From the standpoint of those who want to sell bonds to the insurance companies the phenomenon is not so pleasing; for it may be taken as a fact that only a relatively small amount of the money borrowed on insur-

ance policies finds its way into the bond market.

A Multitude of Stockholders

PRESIDENT VAIL of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co. has succeeded in doing one very remarkable thing since he became president of that corporation. In 1907, 18,194 people owned stock in the Telephone Company; in 1911 the number had increased to 40,381. Of course, a large part of the increase is due to the fact that the capitalization itself is doubled from \$131,500,000 to \$263,300,000; but, nevertheless, the expansion of the list of stockholders is one of the striking episodes of the period.

The following table shows the distribution of the stock of the "Telephone Trust" from 1903 to 1911:

Year	Outstanding Stock	Stock-holders	Average Holdings
Jan. 1, 1903.....	\$87,836,100	10,802	81.3
" 1904.....	127,068,900	15,743	80.7
" 1905.....	131,551,400	16,892	77.8
" 1906.....	131,551,400	17,565	74.8
" 1907.....	131,551,400	18,194	72.3
" 1908.....	152,528,000	23,469	65.1
" 1909.....	152,528,000	26,500	57.5
" 1910.....	256,475,300	35,823	71.5
" 1911.....	263,335,600	40,381	65.2

The investing public likes stocks of this class, representing a great public necessity, administered and carried on by men of a temper to understand the public mind and to meet in a spirit of coöperation the demands of the public for service. From the beginning of Mr. Vail's administration, the Telephone Company appears to have had a new conception of its relationship to the public; and the public has recognized this broad statesman-like conception, not only by a wider use of the facilities sold in the commercial markets, but also by a wider appreciation of the intrinsic value of telephone securities.

The most vital point in securities of this class is management, and this seems to be the point upon which the Telephone Company has built up, not only its actual physical business, but also the broader and better standing of its securities in the markets of the world.



JOHN GALSWORTHY: AN INTERPRETER OF MODERNITY

BY EDWIN BJÖRKMAN

ON this side of the water Galsworthy is probably best known through the influence exercised by his play, "Justice," on prison reform in England. Great as this practical achievement was, it tends, however, to give a false idea of Galsworthy's position in our present-day world of letters. For he is first of all an artist, not a reformer, and his main object in writing is not to effect this or that social improvement, but to display to the living generation both its own innermost soul and the world it has made for itself to live in.¹

Of artists he speaks as "soft and indeterminate spirits, for whom barriers have no meaning, content to understand, interpret, and create." He tells us also how the artist may come "so near that thing which has no breadth, the middle line, that he can watch both sides, and positively smile to see the fun." It is just because of this carefully preserved aloofness, accompanied by a smile that is often sad and mostly somewhat bitter, but for all that rarely without a certain tenderness, that such works of Galsworthy's as the one just mentioned, or his earlier play, "The Silver Box," can affect the public mind as they have actually done. For the public knows that they have come from a balanced, unbiased observer, and not from an alarmist bent on melodramatic effects.

Having recently had our attention called to him in this sensational way, we are also perhaps inclined to regard Galsworthy as a later arrival than he really is. As a fact, he has been turning out a dozen volumes in as many years, and even the earlier ones of these are, by common consent among the critics, placed with the foremost products of modern English literature. Here his fame has spread with rarely exemplified rapidity

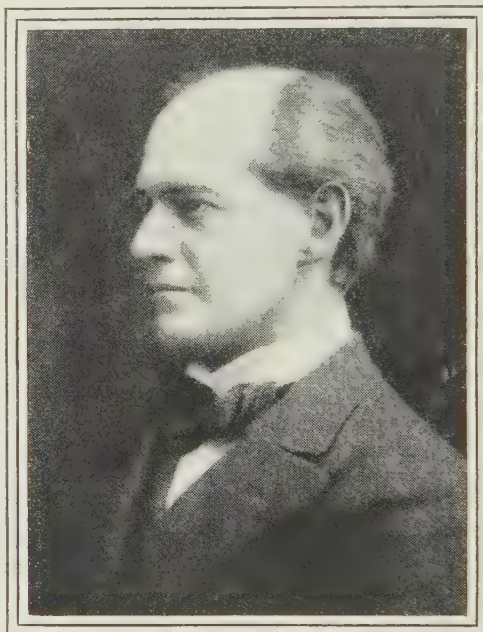
since he was first introduced only a few years ago. And this fame is not of the kind that may be called a fad.

One of the first impressions conveyed by Galsworthy's art is its modernity. None lives more intensely or more completely in the current hour. At times this quality seems a little strained, as when he lets Winlow in "The Patrician" come visiting in a biplane. But as a rule it is the unaffected expression of the author's essential nature and relates to the spirit rather than the appearance of things.

Surveying our own period from his position at "the middle line" and with the calm glance of an artist, Galsworthy finds it "a time between two ages." From this time "the Spirit of Balance has fled," as he puts it. And the chief mark of its human generation he finds in a vain struggle to reach stability between a dying and a coming faith—between the faith in authority, in the god-given destiny of "the best men," and the faith in voluntary service and the intrinsic worth of all normal men. There are still, as there has been through the long, bygone ages, three social classes, but one of these, the great middle-class, is hopelessly divided within itself, so that its lower

part tends to sink into the class beneath, while its upper part is striving to join the class above. Thus the moment seems near when we shall have nothing but indifferent Olympians at the top and brute beasts at the bottom.

Few living writers equal Galsworthy in the art of producing real human creatures. All his works abound in men and women that we might have observed on our latest shopping tour or met at some recent "at home." They bristle with individuality; they quiver with genuine vitality; they attract or repel us, as if we were looking into living eyes and listening to spoken words. But for all this artful character drawing, so abundantly and so tellingly displayed, Galsworthy seems to me above all a painter of social groups. And it is not as separate individuals, but as types of such groups, that his characters obtain their utmost significance. In other words, his impressionism is underlaid with



JOHN GALSWORTHY

¹ The following works by Galsworthy have appeared in book form so far: "Jocelyn," novel, 1899; "Villa Ruben," novel, 1900; "A Man of Devon," stories, 1901; "The Island Pharisees," novel, 1904; "The Man of Property," novel, 1906; "The Country House," novel, 1907; "A Commentary," stories, 1908; "Fraternity," novel, 1909; "Plays," 1909; "A Motley," stories, 1910; "Justice," play, 1910; "The Patrician," novel, 1911. The first and third of these volumes have not, so far as I know, appeared in American editions. The last three volumes have been brought out by Scribners. The rest bear the imprint of Putnam.

symbolism, so that he constantly uses the superficial reality of the fleeting moment to ensnare and hold the lasting reality of the spirit within. Figures like Mrs. Pendyce and old Lady Casterley, like Gregory Vigil and Hilary Dallison, like old Jolyon Forsyte and Lady "Babs," are no allegorical puppets, indeed. But they are also more than ordinary men and women. Through every one of them an integral part of our ever-renewed humanity finds valid utterance.

Galsworthy has been named a poet of democracy. But in spite of his sympathetic recognition of every element entering into modern society, the lower classes play, on the whole, a subordinate part in his works. Even in his wonderful sketches, so many of which are devoted to "Demos"—"those dim multitudes who, since the world began, have lived from hand to mouth"—we are given only studies of heads and hands, so to speak, and not full-length portraits.

This more detailed art Galsworthy has reserved for what might be called our present-day brand of superman. Painstakingly and ironically he has "traced the course of aristocracy, from its primeval rise in crude strength or subtlety, through centuries of power, to picturesque decadence, and the beginning of its last stand." Thus, in "The Man of Property," we become acquainted with the wealthy middle-class, recently arrived and still smelling a little of the soil. Its maxim is "ease with security." Its members belong to the great Forsyte tribe, of which young Jolyon says: "A Forsyte takes a practical view of things, and a practical view is based fundamentally on a sense of property." They are "opportunists and egoists one and all," but they are also "the pillars of society, the corner-stones of conventionality, and everything that is admirable."

Passing on to "The Country House," we enter the presence of those who suffer from the mysterious disease of "Pendycitis," the "little kings of their own dunghills," the group of aristocratic landed proprietors. They live and die at Worsted Skeynes, the vast acres of which must surely adjoin those of Wells' Bladesover. They are not bad: "they merely lack—feelers; a loss that is suffered by plants and animals which no longer have a need for using them." Such labors as they perform "are devoted directly or indirectly to interests of their own." And "their God is kind and lives between the cellar and the kitchen of the Stoics' Club," to which they all belong.

Finally, in "The Patrician," we meet with the true nobility, owners of large estates and real rulers of the land. Here, at last, we have genuine supermen, in so far as our time has been able to produce any at all. Whether they are better than the rest, or Galsworthy has mellowed in his development, they are certainly portrayed in a less damaging light than their social inferiors. As we now see them, it is their business "to be efficient, but not strenuous, or desirous of pushing ideas to their logical conclusions; to be neither narrow nor puritanical, so long as the shell of 'good form' is preserved intact; to be liberal landlords up to the point of not seriously damaging their interests; to be well-disposed toward the arts until these arts reveal that which they have not before perceived; to have light hands, steady eyes, iron nerves, and those excellent manners that have no mannerisms." At their best, each of them shows "the personality of a man practical, spirited, guarded, resourceful, with great power of self-control, who looks at life as if she were a horse under him, to whom he must

give way just so far as is necessary to keep mastery of her."

Though here we have noted definite distinctions between the various groups claiming membership in the great order of supermen, these distinctions have far less weight or prominence than the points of resemblance. For all these claimants to supermanhood—whether they trace their ancestry back to the Norman conquest or admit a grandfather who "had to do with the land down in Dorsetshire"—possess in common this creed: "I believe in my father, and his father, and his father's father, the makers and keepers of my estate, and I believe in myself and my son and my son's son. And I believe that we have made the country, and shall keep the country what it is. And I believe in my social equals and the country house, and in things as they are, for ever and ever. Amen!"

To understand exactly how Galsworthy sees them, we must quote what he says in "The Patrician" of old Lady Casterley: "She had only one weak spot—and that was her strength—blindness as to the nature and size of her place in the scheme of things." We are also told how she "instinctively rejected that inner knowledge of herself or of the selves of others, produced by those foolish practices of introspection, contemplation, and understanding, so deleterious to authority." And in "The Island Pharisees" we find the rebellious Shelton asking himself: "Can a man suffer from passion, heart-searching, or misgivings, and remain a gentleman?"

They are not bad, these supposed supermen—they are just blind. They suffer all and one from "inability to see into the hearts of others"—and "you want a bit o' mind to think of other people," remarks the flagman in "A Commentary." They are moved by "an instinctive dread of what is foreign to themselves, an instinctive fear of seeing another's point of view, an instinctive belief in precedent." Not one of them has discovered that even they may be "mere puppets in the power of great forces that care nothing for family or class or creed, but move, machine-like, with dread processes to inscrutable ends."

Not one of them, I said—but yes, there are a few whose eyes have been opened; men like Shelton in "The Island Pharisees" or Hilary in "Fraternity." These see, and suffer for it, and become outcasts or solitary in the midst of their own people. Sight brings doubt, and doubt is fatal to aspirations toward supermanhood. Blind faith is needful to all leadership—for the present at least. Not until I came across this distinction between those who see and those who do not see "their place in the scheme of things" did I get a meaning out of "Fraternity." It is the pale and uneventful drama of the would-be superman whose oversensitive vision has begun to search his own heart.

Galsworthy apparently believes in those great forces whose mysterious workings are so well hidden to the members of the Stoics' Club. And it seems to me as if he wrote his novels, in particular, rather for the purpose of illustrating the presence of those forces in life than to elucidate the fates of individuals. His plots are always slender. As a rule they are strung on a love story. But this story is never the core of what fills the book. As far as I can make out, Galsworthy plays so much stress on love merely because it is a common and very powerful passion. And he uses it mainly to bring the principles of Forsytem and Pendycitis into crystallization.

"The Patrician" shows probably better than

any other volume what the author has in mind. Eustace Miltoun is the very embodiment of the family tradition—and he comes nearer being a superman, raised above his own self, than any other figure in Galsworthy's vast gallery. To him work is life. And work means one thing, and no other: leadership. Yet he surrenders this most vital demand of his nature when tempted through Audrey Noel, the "incarnation of passive and entwining love." And therewith the whole family goes into action, revealing themselves as only a threat against their class and group interests could make them do. In the end Miltoun is saved from himself by the family and by the greater insight of the women he loves. But for an accident almost, his very blindness would have doomed him to a lifetime of defeat. When placed between the universal force of love and the instincts of his type, he cries out against the cruelty of God, not seeing that his fate is being crushed not against walls raised by God but by the self-preserving egoism of his own class.

It has been said of this story that Galsworthy wants to indicate a surrender of duty to love. I know nothing of his intentions, but what I read out of the book is a question why we should continue institutions that must frequently bring love and duty into fatal conflict. And one more thing I discover—what seems like a deep-lying piece of symbolism. Miltoun and Noel, the representatives of two extremes, have to wander through life without offspring. The same fate befalls Courtier, another extremist. But the race-life will be carried on by individuals who, like the fascinating Lady "Babs" and young Harbinger, stand, after all, for more or less compromise.

Reading Galsworthy, I am constantly reminded of Ibsen and Meredith—not because he has imitated either one of these masters, but because he continues the formal and spiritual traditions of both. His attitude toward woman is theirs. Meredith himself might have expressed the objection felt by Shelton in "The Island Pharisees" against "the tone in which men spoke of women—not exactly with hostility, not exactly with contempt—best, perhaps, described as cultured jeering." While from the vitriolic pen of Ibsen might have sprung the words uttered by the parson in the same story: "The questions of morality have always lain through God in the hands of men, not women. We are the reasonable sex." In this connection it is interesting to compare the attitude of Nora with that of Mrs. Pendyce, regarding whose decision to leave her husband Galsworthy says: "Just as there was nothing violent in her manner of taking this step, so there was nothing violent in her conception of it. To her it was not running away, a setting of her husband at defiance; there was no concealment of address, no melodramatic 'I cannot come back to you.'" And perfectly delicious is the greeting she gives her startled husband when she returns as quietly as she had gone: "Well are you not glad to see me?"

Of Galsworthy's methods and power of expression I shall have no chance to speak here, though it was his formal perfection that first gained a hearing for his art. Be it enough said that he finds beauty everywhere, and that finding it, his soul leaps out in glad ecstasy, uttering words deeply fraught with the glories they celebrate. Not since, as a boy, I first beheld the marvels of a shadow play have I experienced the sensation conferred by a single, simple phrase of his: "Far away on the rising uplands, the slow ploughman drove, outlined against the sky."

In the same casual way only can I refer to those strains of irony and tenderness which run forever intertwined through his pages, endowing them with an emotional as well as artistic satisfaction of rarely surpassed intensity. At first, with the sternness of youth still in his veins, he was more bitter than sweet, but with the storing up of years and experience the blending of those two complementary qualities has become more and more perfectly balanced, until at last we find the man capable of such gentle, yet biting, irony as that expressed in his description of the magnificent Swithin Forsythe: "His mind was the junction of two curiously opposed emotions; a lingering and sturdy satisfaction that he had made his own way and his own fortune, and a sense that a man of his distinction should never have been allowed to soil his mind with work."

In order to classify his art properly, by reference to both its form and spirit, I fear that some new term would have to be invented. I have already spoken of his "symbolical impressionism" in character-drawing. This implies a merging of two tendencies that in the past were ever fighting against each other for supremacy. To define the result of such a merger with desirable precision, I might name Galsworthy a "spiritual realist"—a term particularly apposite to a time which contends that the universe is built up not out of matter but of energy.

And this synthetical character of Galsworthy's art manifests itself in many different ways. Thus—to add only one more instance—his work may be regarded as one continuous sermon against one-sided individualism, and the whole spirit of his art must be deemed social in the best sense. Yet he recognizes keenly what the race has gained by its ages of over-emphasized individualism, and he expresses his understanding in words like these: "Give me a single example of a nation, or an individual, who's ever done any good without having worked up to it from without."

Like Ibsen, Galsworthy is a questioner who leaves the answers to be found by his readers. So fearful is he of taking sides or intruding a lesson that at times, as in "Strife," he appears to some readers guilty of indifference. That he has a philosophy cannot be doubted, but it has generally to be distilled in drops from his works. Here and there, however, one is granted a clear glimpse of the faith that moves the man. For the present generation he has little hope. "You can't get grapes from thorns, or figs from thistles—at least not in one generation," says one of his characters. But better things and better men are coming. "At bottom mankind is splendid," cries Courtier, the knight-errant, "and they're raised by the aspiration that's in all of them." As they rise, they will perceive more and more clearly that "God is within the world, not outside it." Struggling onward, they are filled with "a wayward feeling that the Universe is indivisible, that power has not devolved but evolved, that things are relative, not absolute." And "like children whose mother has departed from their home, they are slowly being forced to trust in, and be good to, themselves and to one another, and so to form out of their necessity, desperately, unconsciously, their new great belief in Humanity."

Galsworthy is still young—only forty-four years of age. So far his career has been one of steady growth. If he goes on, along the same path, with the same speed, we may surely expect extraordinary things from his pen in the future.

THE NEW BOOKS

RECENT WORKS ON SOCIOLOGY

IT is a question if there lives to-day a woman writer who can equal Olive Schreiner in ability to present a point of view with resistless logic touched with emotion that has an appeal deeper than the intellect, reaching even to what an old English writer has called the mental processes of the heart. From her early girlhood, Mrs. Schreiner tells us in the preface to her vital and highly significant book, "Woman and Labor,"¹ which has just appeared, she had toiled laboriously at a study of woman and her part in the progress of civilization.

The first section of three was completed in 1888. The other two parts were ready eleven years later. In the summer of 1899, when her manuscript needed only final revision and a preface, the Boer War broke out. During her absence from her estate near Johannesburg, her home was looted and burned, everything, the manuscript of the precious book included, being destroyed. Painfully she began to reconstruct the story that had consumed so many years of her life, and now, she says, "I give out this fragment." It is an attempt to trace the evolution of sex, and to point out its possibilities, more, she tells us, for the sake of generations to come than for the case-hardened society of to-day. The present unrest among women, Mrs. Schreiner believes, is due primarily to the fact that modern life is on an unsound basis, and that, for the first time in history, "a large proportion of women are facing a condition of parasitism that is likely to be fatal to the human race if not remedied." This is the keynote of the book. The fact of the argument is based, not on the happiness and present rights of womankind, but on the welfare of the human race as a whole." In addition to this "parasitism" of the modern woman, Mrs. Schreiner considers "Woman and War" and "Sex Differences," and then proceeds to answer "Certain Objections."

Readers of the article that we published last month on Bernard Shaw will be interested in a little book by that author entitled "The Common Sense of Municipal Trading,"² which appears as No. 5 in the "Fabian Socialist Series." This book has been before the English public for some years, and the arguments that it presents have been contested in several campaigns, notably in the

British municipal elections of 1907. In the preface to this edition, the author gives his own explanation of the result of those elections, which are generally assumed to be a setback for what in England is called municipal trading, and in America is known as the municipal ownership of public utilities. Bernard Shaw contends that there must be a radical reformation in English municipal finance before any extension of municipal enterprises can have a fair chance.

The discussion concerning the new State constitution in Arizona gives special timeliness to the publication of Mr. Walter F. Dodd's scholarly

treatise on "The Revision and Amendment of State Constitutions."³ This work gives detailed information on the history of the constitutional convention in this country, the process of amendment, and the working of the constitutional referendum.

The publication of "The Modern Criminal Science Series" has been begun under the supervision of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, which was organized two years ago. The object of this institute is "to further the scientific study of crime, criminal law and procedure; to formulate and promote measures connected therewith; and to coordinate the efforts of individuals and organizations interested in the administration of certain and speedy justice."

One of the undertakings of the institute is to make accessible in the English language important treatises on criminology written in foreign languages.

To this end a committee of five was appointed, headed by Prof. William W. Smithers of Philadelphia, to select treatises for translation and to arrange for their publication. The initial volume of the series is "Modern Theories of Criminality,"⁴ by C. Bernard de Quiros.

"Criminal Psychology"⁵ is the title of the second volume in the series, which is a manual for judges, practitioners, and students, by Prof. Hans Gross of the University of Graz, Austria. An introduction to this American edition is furnished by Prof. Joseph Jastrow of the University of Wisconsin.

In the series of Hart, Schnaffner and Marx Prize Essays in Economics, we have "Socialism: a Critical Analysis,"⁶ by Prof. O. D. Skelton, of



MRS. OLIVE SCHREINER

¹ Woman and Labor. By Olive Schreiner. Stokes. 299 pp. \$1.25.

² The Common Sense of Municipal Trading. By Bernard Shaw. John Lane Co. 120 pp. 75 cents.

³ The Revision and Amendment of State Constitutions. By Walter F. Dodd. The Johns Hopkins Press. 350 pp. \$2.

⁴ Modern Theories of Criminality. By C. Bernard de Quiros. Little, Brown & Co. 249 pp. \$4.

⁵ Criminal Psychology. By Hans Gross. Translated by Horace M. Kalen. Little, Brown & Co. 514 pp. \$5.

⁶ Socialism: A Critical Analysis. By Oscar D. Skelton. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 329 pp. \$1.50.

Queen's College, Kingston, Canada, and "The Standard of Living Among the Industrial People of America,"¹ by Frank Hatch Straightoff. Professor Skelton's treatise contains a fair and well-balanced statement of the ideals kept in view by Socialists of to-day, giving at the same time a very helpful discussion of the various systems of thought that have characterized the leading Socialistic schools of the past. The main purpose of the book, however, is to show what the modern Socialist movement is and on what it was based. Mr. Straightoff's analysis of the standard of living deals with facts and statistics that have only recently been brought to light by official and semi-official investigations. The problems of housing, food, clothing, and particularly unemployment, are discussed with as much fullness as is possible in a book of less than two hundred pages. Among the most important of the conclusions derived from this study is the fact that nearly one-third of the industrial families of the country are insufficiently nourished. If the writer is correct in his deductions, the matter has an important bearing on the question of the industrial efficiency of the nation.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, AND REMINISCENCES

It is not often that the general public has a chance to read as thorough, comprehensive and stimulatingly written an account of a single military campaign as is presented to them in Major Bigelow's "Campaign of Chancellorsville,"² which has just been brought out by the Yale University Press. More than one foreign military expert has given it as his opinion that the battle of Chancellorsville, and the campaign which preceded it, presented a greater variety of military problems and experiences than any other in which the army of the United States has taken part. Major Bigelow (United States army, retired), who has already brought out a number of studies of campaigns in the Old World, besides a scholarly work on "The Principles of Strategy," served, by government assignment, in the summer of 1894, as Professor of Military Science and Tactics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He chose the campaign of Chancellorsville for the theme of a course of lectures to his classes. The present volume not only bears out the testimony of the foreign experts already referred to, but confirms Major Bigelow's own judgment that in no other campaign in which Americans and the American army have taken part "was there so rapid a succession of critical situations." Major Bigelow has divided his work into two parts, considering, first, the period of preparation, and, second, the period of operation. His description is very full and detailed, and his attitude scholarly and impartial. The excellent series of maps—there are 39 of them—cannot be too highly commended. It is quite possible from a study of these successive maps alone, without once referring to the text, to get an exceedingly graphic idea of the entire campaign. There are also a number of detachable maps in the folding pocket at the back of the volume.

An unusual but useful task is set for himself by Henry Osborn Taylor, in the development of his two-volume work, "The Mediaeval Mind."³ His idea has been to follow through the Middle Ages

the "development of intellectual energy and the growth of emotion." The kernel of his desire has been, he says, "to pierce through the intellectual and spiritual remoteness of these Middle Ages to reach human comradeship with mediaeval motives." The Church fathers, the growth of scholasticism, feudalism and knighthood, chivalry, monasticism, the universities of the Middle Ages, and the spell of the classics are among the themes that receive separate consideration. There is an excellent index.

A noteworthy contribution to the literature of the development of anti-slavery sentiment is made by Dr. Russell Parsons Jameson, Associate Professor of Romance Languages at Oberlin. Dr. Jameson, writing in French and publishing in Paris, entitles his study "Montesquieu et l'Esclavage."⁴ This monograph, prepared after several years of study and investigation at the University of Paris, is a contribution to American scholarship, presenting documentary evidence carefully and adequately digested.

Professor John Edward Lloyd's two-volume history of Wales⁵ is a labor of love as well as of scholarship. It considers in minute detail, and with almost painful elaborateness of historical evidences, the story of Welsh development from the earliest times to the English conquest in 1282. There are copious notes and tables, and a good index and a map.

An attempt to supplement Prescott's famous "Conquest of Peru," which was published, it will be remembered, in 1843, has been made by Sir Clements R. Markham, in a new book ("The Incas of Peru")⁶ in which he presents the subsequently discovered material "which has altered our view of some things and thrown an entirely new light upon others." Sir Clements Markham is an Englishman of distinction, a K. C. B., a corresponding member of the Royal Academy of History at Madrid and of the Geographical Societies of Peru and Bolivia. He is now in his eightieth year. He has spent, he says, the best part of sixty years thinking about this work and studying the sources. It is illustrated and provided with maps.

From the standpoint of modern geography, Palestine is a country of unusual interest. Moreover, it is comparatively unknown. The physical features of this land which have helped to mold the life and thought of the Jewish race cannot fail to be interesting and suggestive to the modern student, particularly if presented in the light of the science of to-day. Ellsworth Huntington, assistant professor of geography at Yale, has made a thorough, first-hand study of the geography and geology of the Holy Land, and has conducted long and painstaking investigations into the literature of the subject. Therefore, when he gives us the result of his investigations and ideas in a finely illustrated volume entitled "Palestine and Its Transformation,"⁷ we are justified in expecting stimulating and profitable reading. He has not considered the subject from the standpoint of the religious significance of Palestine, nor as the site of places mentioned in the Bible. He has studied the effect of physical environment upon the life, thought and achievements of the Jewish people, and therefore, in more or less degree, upon all Western peoples.

Useful and suggestive reading at this time, when Americans generally are recalling Civil War

¹ The Standard of Living Among the Industrial People of America. By Frank H. Straightoff. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 196 pp., charts. \$1.

² Campaign of Chancellorsville. With maps and plans. By John Bigelow, Jr., New Haven, Yale University Press. 528 pp. \$10.

³ The Mediaeval Mind. 2 vols. By Henry Osborn Taylor. Macmillan. 1172 pp. \$5.

⁴ Montesquieu et l'Esclavage. By Russell Parsons Jameson. Librairie Hachette et Cie., Paris. 347 pp.

⁵ History of Wales. 2 vols. By J. E. Lloyd. Longmans & Co. 1127 pp. \$5.

⁶ The Incas of Peru. By Sir Clements R. Markham. Dutton & Co., 414 pp., ill. \$3.

⁷ Palestine and Its Transformation. By Ellsworth Huntington. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 443 pp., ill. \$2.

events, will be found in Frank Warren Hackett's "Reminiscences of the Geneva Tribunal of Arbitration in 1872 on the Alabama Claims."¹ Mr. Hackett was Secretary to Caleb Cushing, the senior American Counsel, and was not only present at most of the sessions of the Tribunal at Geneva, but made the personal acquaintance of all the actors in the drama. He traces the entire series of negotiations and deliberations of the court, which resulted in the payment, with good grace, by Great Britain, which had been adjudged the loser, of the fifteen and a half millions of dollars as indemnity to the United States.

Supplementary reading on this same subject will be found in an absorbing chapter in Mr. R. Barry O'Brien's study of John Bright and his career.² The consistent friendship of this English statesman for the United States, and the part he played in preventing the recognition of the Southern Confederacy by the government of Queen Victoria, is set forth with a number of interesting letters and incidents. There are also many excellent portraits.

Mr. George W. Smalley, it has been said, has known most people in two hemispheres for sixty years. For half a century he was "the ambassador of international journalism." What he has to say, therefore, in his recently issued autobiographical work, "Anglo-American Memories,"³ has appealed to a wide audience. A portrait of Mr. Smalley serves as the frontispiece.

The story of the siege of Boston⁴ in the Revolutionary War has been retold in a highly entertaining manner by Allen French. To a certain extent this author has relied on the standard account by Frothingham, but on many points of the story he has gone behind Frothingham's narrative to the contemporary statements that have been preserved. Moreover, since the publication of Frothingham's book, more than sixty years ago, much new material has come to light, which Mr. French has sifted and largely incorporated in his record.

The interest developed by some of the State historical societies in the records of the Civil War has already resulted in the publication of a number of monographs which are real contributions to the history of the great conflict of half a century ago. The latest of these to come to our notice is "The Battle of Shiloh,"⁵ by Joseph W. Rich, which has been published by the State Historical Society of Iowa. Perhaps it is not generally remembered that in the famous battle of which Mr. Rich writes, the State of Iowa had more men engaged in proportion to its population than any other. Eleven Iowa regiments of infantry took part in the battle, and besides these regiments there were in the Twenty-fifth Missouri three Iowa companies. The Sixth Iowa claims the distinction of being the first to disembark at Pittsburg Landing, while the Eighth was the last regiment to retire from the line in the famous Hornet's Nest. The author of this monograph himself took part in the battle as a member of Company E of the Twelfth Iowa. His account first appeared in the *Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, in October, 1909, and was favorably received by military authorities, including survivors of the battle. The reader will find some of the positions of earlier writers controverted in Mr.

Rich's pages, but the author is careful to cite his authorities with precision, and most of his statements can be verified by consulting documentary authorities.

In the series of "American Crisis Biographies," Prof. Edward Everett Hale, Jr., of Union College, contributes a life of William H. Seward.⁶ Recognizing the influence of New York State politics in Seward's career as a national leader, Professor Hale has devoted more attention to Seward's New York record than has been usual in biographies of Lincoln's Secretary of State.

In the same biographical series, Dr. Henry Parker Willis contributes a life of Stephen A. Douglas,⁷ whose career belongs less to the Civil War period itself than to the fifteen or twenty years preceding the firing on Sumter. Dr. Willis refers to Douglas primarily as a figure in national politics rather than as a participant in the slavery struggle.

MUSIC, LITERATURE, AND THE DRAMA

"The Education of a Music Lover,"⁸ the latest work of Prof. Edward Dickinson, of Oberlin College, is a symmetrical effort to interpret music to those who have but slight acquaintance with musical art, and to make possible the understanding of melodic ideas by those whose chief delight in music has been the sensuous and transient pleasure of a momentary impression upon the senses. The essays which compose the volume have been previously published in the *Musician*. They deal with a variety of phases of knowledge necessary to the proper appreciation of music, namely, "The Problem of Form," "Beauty of Harmony," "Technique of the Singer," "Expression," "History and Biography," and "The New Musical Education." Professor Dickinson advises the systematic cultivation in our schools of the esthetic taste for good music. Not alone does he insist on listening intelligently to music; he demands an individual interpretation of musical forms that will be retained as a factor in the permanent culture of the individual. Because Beethoven said his "Fifth Symphony" meant, "Fate knocks at the door," it is not obligatory that we find in this composition the identical symphonic picture, nor need we perceive a "cavalcade of knights and ladies on horseback" in Chopin's "Ballade in G Minor." A persistent note of mysticism runs through Professor Dickinson's fluent text, an echo of the old cry—"O Music, thou speakest to me of things that in all my life I have not found and shall not find." He has the rare faculty of writing about music in a melodic manner, the tonal color of his words varying in due proportion to the import of his subject matter. He is not pedantic nor elegiac; his art is inspiring and vitalizing, an offering to the "gods of music," of a tribute that is essentially noble and a step forward in the development of a public taste for the art of music.

To the "Children of the East and West" is dedicated the new volume "Literature in the School,"⁹ by Mr. John Welch, formerly Supervisor of Public Schools in Salt Lake City. The book is a direct plea for the differentiation advocated by our wisest pedagogues in the teaching of English literature in the grammar schools, and deals with the many problems in this phase of educational

¹ Reminiscences of the Geneva Tribunal. By Frank W. Hackett. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 416 pp. \$2.

² John Bright. By R. Barry O'Brien. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 264 pp., por. \$3.

³ Anglo-American Memories. By George W. Smalley. Putnam. 430 pp., por. \$2.50.

⁴ The Siege of Boston. By Allen French. Macmillan. 450 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ The Battle of Shiloh. By Joseph W. Rich. The State Historical Society of Iowa. 134 pp., port. and maps. \$1.25.

⁶ William H. Seward. By Edward Everett Hale, Jr. Jacobs. 388 pp., port. \$1.25.

⁷ Stephen A. Douglas. By Henry Parker Willis. Jacobs. 371 pp., port. \$1.25.

⁸ The Education of a Music Lover. By Edward Dickinson. Scribner's. 293 pp. \$1.50.

⁹ Literature in the School. By John S. Welch. Silver. \$1.25.

work. There are numerous selections with ample annotations and suggestions for their literary adjustment to children of varying mentality. Reading, states Mr. Welch, is imaging, thinking, feeling, and interpreting; thinking of ideas in unity, imaging that which lies behind the word, feeling and interpreting the emotion experienced, to another mind. He also thinks, that to place a child of foreign parentage, alien to our language and traditions, beside an American child reared in an atmosphere of comparative culture and to give to both these children the same literary task, puts the foreign child at a tremendous disadvantage. There is emphasis on the need of a special course in literature to fulfill the need of those pupils who, from choice or necessity, pass from the grammar grades into the trade-schools. A short synopsis of the work of Luther Burbank and the application of his theories to child-culture is included in this useful pedagogical work.

We have an interesting chat about theatrical matters in Mr. Walter Prichard Eaton's book entitled, "At the New Theater and Others."¹ There is a brief history of the New Theater, with a careful review of the plays produced by its organization. From the opening of this playhouse, with Marlowe and Sothern in a production of "Antony and Cleopatra," to its recent successes with "The Bluebird" and "The Arrowmaker," Mr. Eaton has followed its progress with commendable zeal and appreciation. The comments are unprejudiced and the narration of incidents has the flavor of pleasant experience handled with considerable lightness of touch and deft fancifulness. Beyond this pleasing presentation of facts concerning plays and players, Mr. Eaton writes of the recent trend of theatrical interest toward a revival of the pageants, masques, and morality plays of the Elizabethan age. Of the personal essays that complete the book, the most vital is a tribute to the "dean of critics," Mr. William Winter.

Miss M. Betham-Edwards has chosen a fascinating subject for her latest volume, namely, the discussion of "French Men, Women and Books."² Her crisp, easy comment might easily lure the reader into a fruitful study of contemporary French literature, as it would be interesting to discover why Zola lies forgotten on the shelves of the book stores while Flaubert and Maupassant remain unceasingly popular. Literature, like everything else, has its epidemics, and just now in France the Puritanical tendency is uppermost; the psychological novel has suffered an eclipse and the domestic novel is in the ascendant. The French novelist, in a fine glow of ethical enthusiasm, has foresworn nauseous themes to fine delight in the humble and humdrum loves of the bourgeoisie. No more will the French novel suffer under the odium of interdiction from our curriculums of youth, for it has forsaken silks and satins and intrigues for calico and virtue. Domestic French verse is given in skillful translations that preserve much of the fragile charm of the originals; there is Gustave Nadaud's "Carcassonne," and "The Flute," by Jean Richpin, our modern brother to that other poet of vagabondia, Francois Villon; Robert Caze presents an idyllic picture of rustic hospitality in "Charite," and Alfred de Musset contributes his allegorical "Les Deux Routes" to these troubadour songs. The history of the strange love affair between

Madame Hanska and Honore Balzac is related with sympathetic comprehension of the characters concerned. Less familiar but equally of interest is the account of the Anglo-French romance of Mary Clarke and Claude Fauriel. The pen-portraits of these two women, so differently endowed with beauty and attractive mentality, emerge like lovely cameos from the setting of Miss Betham-Edwards' pleasant phrases. A summary of piquant French views of England by M.M. Chevrillon, Boutmy, and other men of letters, brings to a close this admirable volume.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

"Wider Use of the School Plant"³ is the title of a book by Clarence Arthur Perry, who has summarized the results of an inquiry into the utilization of school property after day-class hours, which has been carried on for the past year and a half by the Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation. Many interesting and unexpected facts have been brought out by this investigation, and all this information is suggestive of what may be done in many communities to make school property of more use to both children and adults. Mr. Perry shows in this volume, by means of pictures as well as of text, what is actually being done by various American communities, and what it is costing them. Not only have evening and vacation schools been organized very extensively within recent years, but schoolhouses are serving more and more as social centers, while games and athletics have been organized in many places on a new basis.

The advantages of the Canadian system of branch banks are set forth in a volume by H. M. P. Eckardt entitled "A Rational Banking System."⁴ Mr. Eckardt was for eighteen years in the service of the Merchant's Bank of Canada, and is the author of a "Manual of Canadian Banking." Since his retirement, in 1905, Mr. Eckardt has resided in the United States, and in this book he sets forth what he regards as certain defects and shortcomings of our American system of isolated local banks. His argument on the cost of the decentralized banking system, with which we are familiar in this country, is calculated to make a strong appeal to financial men. He further offers suggestions as to the method by which the transition from the old-type bank to the proposed one might be made without undue loss.

A careful study of the efforts being made by the new Turkish régime to reconstruct the Empire from a political and economic standpoint has been made by F. G. Aflalo, under the title "Regilding the Crescent."⁵ He has attempted, he tells us in his preface, to make this book a "Who's Who?" and "What's What?" for newspaper readers, "giving some idea of the races, religions and politics, of the resources and the difficulties, which are of supreme interest in the working out of Turkey's salvation." The volume is copiously illustrated.

In the "International Theological Library," Dr. James Moffatt has given us a voluminous "Introduction to the Literature of the New Testament."⁶ This is a manual designed primarily for the use of students. The text is plentifully besprinkled with notes and quotations from all the eminent authors in most of the learned languages.

¹ *Wider Use of the School Plant.* By Clarence Arthur Perry. Charities Publication Committee. 423 pp., ill. \$1.25.

² *A Rational Banking System.* By H. M. P. Eckardt. Harper's. 328 pp. \$1.50.

³ *Regilding the Crescent.* By F. G. Aflalo. J. B. Lippincott Co. 288 pp., ill. \$3.

⁴ *Introduction to the Literature of the New Testament.* By James Moffatt. Scribner's. 619 pp. \$1.25.

¹ *At the New Theater and Others.* By Walter Prichard Eaton. Small. \$1.50.

² *French Men, Women and Books.* By Miss M. Betham-Edwards. Chicago: McClurg. 207 pp. \$2.50.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

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THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS CO., 13 Astor Place, New York City



PORFIRIO DIAZ, STATESMAN, NATION BUILDER, FOR THIRTY YEARS PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

On the twenty-second of last month the white-haired old soldier-statesman, who, from Mexico City, has ruled the destinies of his country for a generation, agreed to give up office because a successful revolution had convinced him that his resignation of the Presidential office was his duty. Last September, Porfirio Diaz celebrated his eightieth birthday while Mexico was celebrating her one hundredth. Born in Oaxaca, of a Spanish father and native Indian mother, he was educated for the Church. But Diaz was a born soldier. He fought against the French intervention, and defeated the invaders. He became eminent in war and statesmanship, and was elected Provisional President of the Republic in 1876. In 1880 he was succeeded by Gonzalez, but four years later was again elevated to the Presidential chair, which he has occupied continuously ever since. His presidency has marked an epoch in the history of Mexico, and has given him high rank among the world's contemporary statesmen. At times his government has been harsh, but it has been actual government. This magazine has recorded the progress of the revolutionary movement, which grew up because Diaz was getting old, and his advisers were less able, less scrupulous and less honest than he. The portrait we reproduce above was taken last year. It is from Mr. James Creelman's biographical study, "Diaz, Master of Mexico," already noticed in these pages.

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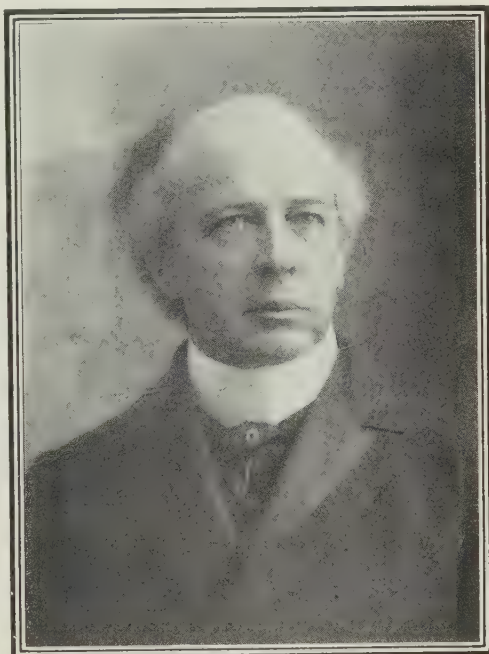
NEW YORK, JUNE, 1911

No. 6

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

*Reciprocity
at
Ottawa*

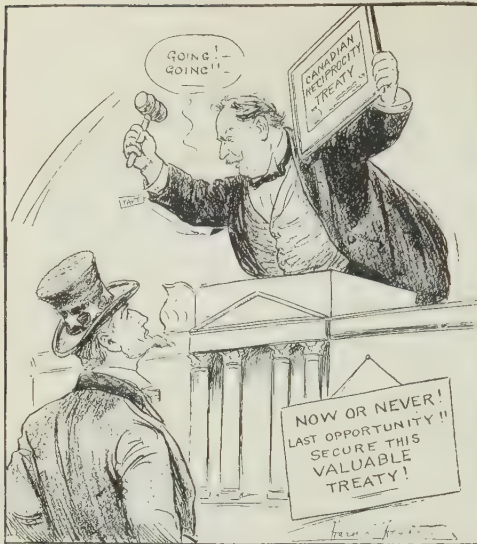
On the assumption that it would not be possible for the United States Congress to dispose of the reciprocity agreement before the middle of July, the Canadian Parliament, on May 19, adjourned for two months. Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Parliamentary delegation, which includes Sir Frederic Borden, Minister of Militia, and Hon. Louis P. Brodeur, Minister of Marine and Fisheries, sailed for London on May 13, to attend the Imperial Conference and the coronation. During the Premier's absence, the government case will be in the vigilant charge of Finance Minister Fielding. It was expected that the departure of the Premier would mark the beginning of an "educational campaign" throughout the Dominion for and against reciprocity, by the leaders of both sides. Sir Wilfrid Laurier succeeded in coming to a definite agreement with Mr. R. L. Borden, the leader of the opposition, to the effect that no obstruction would be offered in the Commons to the voting of supplies, and no attempt to force an immediate election with reciprocity as an issue. After the Parliamentary recess,—provided always that the United States Senate has, in the meantime, taken favorable action on the matter,—the government expects to carry the measure through in spite of all opposition. It is expected that Parliament will again assemble in July. Soon after reassembly the new census figures will be available. Then there will be a rearrangement of electoral divisions. If a general election should then be held, the chances for reciprocity would be very much bettered, since the great Canadian West, which is now under-represented and almost solid for reciprocity, would swell the forces behind the Premier. The West seems destined to dominate the Dominion in due time.



SIR WILFRID LAURIER
(Canada's eminent Premier, now in England)

*Questions of
Far-Reaching
Policy*

In this number of the REVIEW will be found an article on the Canadians and their attitude toward reciprocity, from the pen of the Hon. Albert J. Beveridge, of Indiana, whose inquiries at Ottawa and elsewhere in the Dominion during the period since his retirement from the Senate on March 4 have given him not only a store of information, but a remarkable insight into the conflicting sentiments and interests that are behind the opposing parties in the Dominion. This article will be found most vivid and illuminating. It shows how, in a quiet but well-organized way, the business forces of the older provinces of Can-

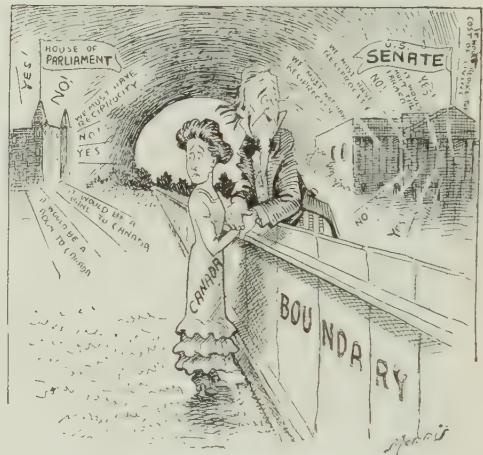


THE AUCTIONEER

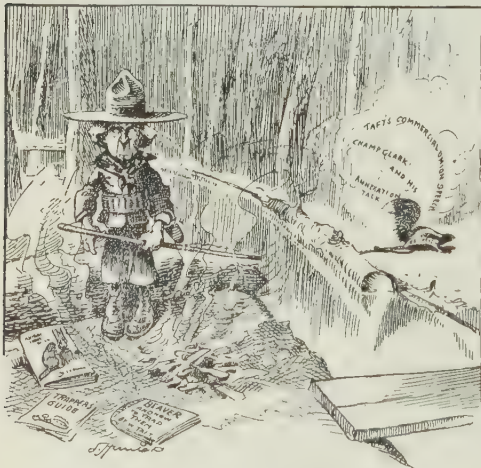
From the *Inter Ocean* (Chicago)

ada are opposed to reciprocity with the United States, while the growing agricultural regions of western Canada are strongly demanding the removal of trade restrictions between them and our States stretching from Chicago to Seattle. Canada has permitted unobstructed debate both in Parliament and throughout the country; while—by way of contrast—the attempt has been made at Washington to “jam” reciprocity through, with the least possible discussion. Thus the measure was pushed through the expiring Republican House early in the year without being read or debated, while it has now gone through the Democratic House with very

scanty debate upon its merits. It will not fail to encounter the usual processes of parliamentary bodies in its passage through the Senate. The Finance Committee has been granting hearings for several weeks, and it is expected that the month of June will be largely devoted by the Senators to a debate upon the general policy of reciprocity as well as upon the details of the pending agreement. Upon the broad proposition that we ought to have close trade relations with Canada, the sentiment of the United States seems to be in accord with the views of President Taft. Upon the details of the present agreement, there are wide differences of opinion, and the public at large shows no eagerness to assimilate information. To the question whether or not it was an opportune thing to push a



THIS SUSPENSE IS AWFUL

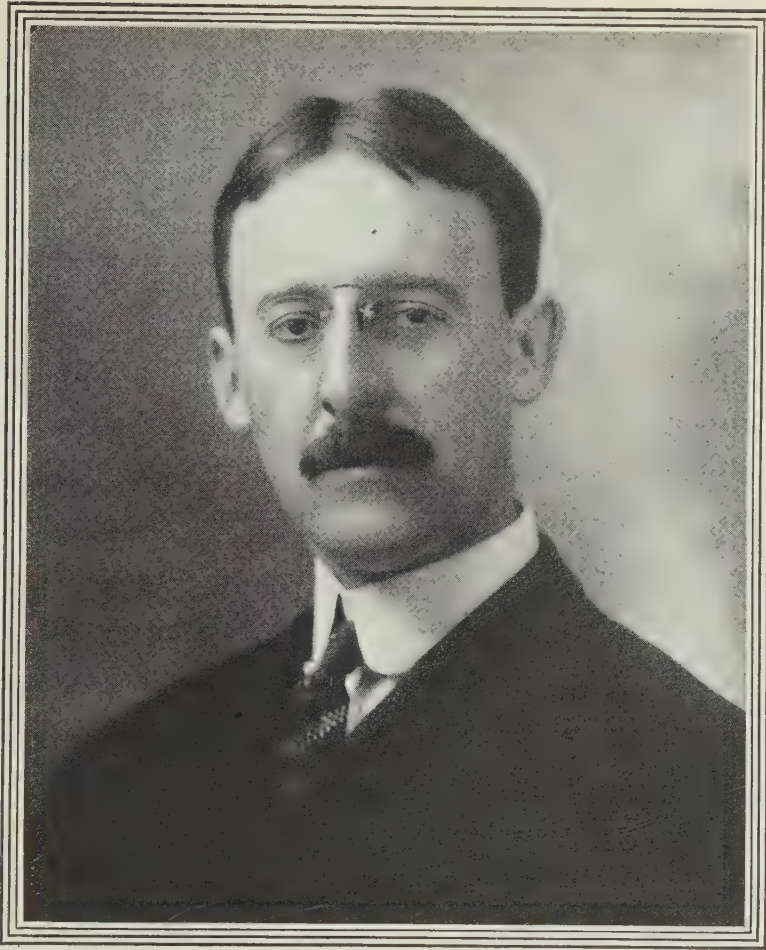
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

AN UNSAVORY CATCH, OR THE PREMIER'S PREDICAMENT

WILFRID, the Boy Trapper: "I dassin't keep it, an' I don't know how to let it go."

From the *Globe* (Toronto)

reciprocity agreement with Canada from the Republican standpoint, just after the country had strongly condemned Republican tariff policies, each political group must have its own answer. It must be admitted, certainly, that if the Republicans had swept the country in the November elections, reciprocity would have been opportune. Republican victory would have meant the maintenance for some years to come of the Payne-Aldrich tariff; and reciprocity treaties are negotiated from the standpoint of the existing general law. Yet it must be remembered that, through the late Mr. Hoyt and the other commissioners, our State Department had been negotiating this Canadian agreement long before the November elections. There is a feeling in the minds of thoughtful people that the destiny of North America is largely bound up with the results of the present movement for



Photograph by Pach, N. Y.

HON. HENRY L. STIMSON, THE NEW SECRETARY OF WAR

("When Mr. Taft met Mr. Stimson in Newark on Saturday the President said to him: 'I'll give you your first assignment as the baby member of the Cabinet. It will be your duty to speak before the Intercolonial Club of Boston on May 24 on the subject of reciprocity.'")—From the *New York Sun* of May 16)

special trade relations between the two halves of the continent. Thus details are ignored.

*Need of Close
Canadian
Relations*

The reasons for intimacy and harmony between the Dominion and the United States relate not merely to our own Western Hemisphere affairs, but to the peace and welfare of the whole world. It is not for the best permanent interest of Canada that her larger policies should be dictated from Westminster, or that she should regard herself as destined in a self-abnegating way to serve the purposes of the British Empire. We have never hesitated in this REVIEW to say, with all neighborly frankness, that Canada ought not to have taken any part in the South African struggle. Canada has a certain relationship with the United Kingdom, and the United Kingdom

has a certain relationship with South Africa, but Canada has no relationship with South Africa, and was ill-advised in participating in a war between Great Britain and the Boer colonies. Canada's real guaranty of safety and quiet within her own domain does not lie at all in her being a part of the British Empire. Her security now, as for a long time past, lies in the neighborliness and in the fixed policy of the United States. If England and Germany were engaged in warfare (over some question having to do with Africa, for instance) it would not be fitting that Germany should carry the operations of war into American waters or upon American soil. The United States could not permit a German conquest or occupation of Canada, in case of such a war between Germany and England. But if Canada herself had furnished large

quotas of men, ships, and munitions of war, and had made herself an active ally of England in a struggle that had not primarily concerned the Dominion, it is obvious that Germany would be fighting not only Great Britain but also Canada. And under those circumstances, the laws of war would justify Germany in attacking Canadian ports and in transferring the theater of conflict to Canadian soil, if reasons of strategy so required. This would mean that the Dominion had voluntarily abandoned her position of absolute peace and safety, for the foolish and futile purpose of becoming part and parcel of the hurly-burly of European militarism.

*Canada's
Destiny
at Stake*

Canada does not like our political system, and it is true that in some respects the Canadian system works better than ours. But Canada's general relationships, as neighbor and intimate associate, ought to be with the United States. A development of the British tie that had as its object the creation of a military power along our northern frontier, would inevitably bring about, as its logical effect, an annexation movement that would have unpleasant features. Canada needs, practically, neither army nor navy. If she abstains from the sword, she will be protected and defended in every emergency. Her close coöperation with the United States need not diminish her ties of sentiment with the United Kingdom. It would, on the other hand, tend to strengthen the good understanding of the English-speaking world. Reciprocity as a way of committing the two halves of North America to a future of closer relationships is a thing to be advocated. Meanwhile, there can be no sound reason why every item of the pending measure should not be discussed upon its merits, precisely as in the case of any other tariff bill. If the sentiment for reciprocity in the two countries is of such dubious strength that it requires that this particular measure be gulped down with closed eyes,—lest no sort of reciprocity could otherwise ever be agreed upon,—then it would seem as if the subject had better wait for further maturing of public opinion.

*The Report
Upon Pulp
and Paper*

Apart from the higher logic of reciprocity, there is a vast deal of practical politics involved, about which the general public is not enlightened. Section 2 of the pending measure gives the newspapers of the country free wood pulp and free white paper. So far as one can learn, this is the sole reason why there is any urgency

about the treaty. The newspapers want their free paper, and nobody can blame them for being cordial toward a measure that is designed to promote their particular welfare. In the long run, however, it would probably not be to the advantage of the newspapers to secure any freedom of importation that would seriously cripple the American paper mills. A very interesting and valuable report upon the cost of wood pulp and paper in this country and Canada was transmitted to the Senate late last month as the completed work of the Tariff Board. In a general way it shows that the labor cost is about the same in both countries, but that the wood from which the pulp is ground is very much cheaper in Canada than in the United States. President Taft's speeches on behalf of reciprocity as a general policy have been strong and influential. When he appointed Mr. Stimson, of New York, as the new Secretary of War, it was with the instruction (as reported in the press) that his first assignment to duty would be the making of a reciprocity speech in Boston. The lumber interests have been very active in working against reciprocity, and as a more or less fitting coincidence the Department of Justice late last month began a formidable prosecution of certain lumber interests associated in alleged conspiracies for the restraint of trade.

*Secretary
Dickinson
Retires*

The resignation of Secretary Dickinson, of the War Department, had not been expected by the country. It was denied that there were any reasons of an administrative or political character for his retirement from the cabinet. Mr. Dickinson has always been a member of the Democratic party, but, like many Democratic lawyers, he supported Mr. Taft in 1908.



WATCHING HIS BOUNDARIES
From the *Public Ledger* (Philadelphia)



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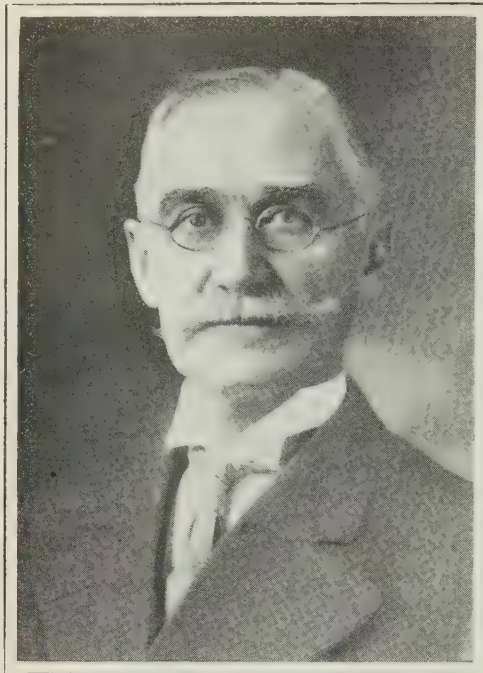
HON. JACOB M. DICKINSON, WHO RETIRED FROM THE CABINET LATE IN MAY

It was frankly explained that private interests required the attention of the retiring Secretary, and he has gone out of office with universal respect and esteem. He was willing to remain longer if the situation on the Mexican frontier rendered a change at the head of the War Department temporarily inexpedient. But more favorable prospects in that quarter made it evident that a change could as well be made now as at some later time. President Taft said: "In every way your work has been admirable and entitles you to the gratitude of your countrymen."

*The New
Secretary
of War*

Mr. Stimson assumes great responsibilities as the head of the War Department; but all who know him believe that the President has chosen a man fully equal in ability and character to cope with the wide range of administrative duties that has devolved successively upon Mr. Root, Mr. Taft himself, General Luke Wright, and Mr. Dickinson. For it must be remembered that the administrative side of the army itself is no small undertaking,

while the War Department has also the oversight of our affairs in the West Indies and in the Pacific Ocean, including the Philippines, and directs the construction of the Panama Canal. Mr. Stimson is in his forty-fourth year, and has been practising law in New York for about twenty years. He had the advantage of beginning his practical law work as a clerk in the office of the Hon. Elihu Root, and he was admitted to partnership in Mr. Root's firm within a short period. President Roosevelt made him United States District Attorney, and his prosecution of Custom House frauds in the case of the Sugar Trust gave him a wide reputation. His nomination for Governor at Saratoga last year, in a convention where Mr. Roosevelt assumed leadership, will be well remembered by every one interested in politics. Before the Saratoga convention was held, it was freely predicted that the Republicans would lose the State of New York by a majority of 200,000. Governor Dix's majority turned out to be less than 70,000. If the Stimson campaign had lasted four weeks longer, and some measures had



Photograph by G. G. Bain, New York

HON. C. S. MILLINGTON

(In charge of the Sub-Treasury at New York)

been taken to get out the Republican vote in the country districts, there would have been a possible chance of Republican victory. As a balancing of honors between the two wings of the party in New York, Mr. Taft has named Hon. C. S. Millington, of Herkimer, as Assistant Treasurer of the United States in New York City. Mr. Millington is a close friend of Vice-President Sherman, and succeeded him in the House of Representatives, serving in the last Congress.

In the current number of the *Military Efficiency Atlantic Monthly* there is an article by Mr. John Bigelow, Jr., entitled "If the United States Should Go To War." It analyzes carefully our actual and potential military strength, makes allusion to possible sources of trouble, and shows what might happen in case of invasion. It amounts to a strong argument in favor of being prepared for defense. This country will not be tempted to adopt any program of military aggression. Its strength will be used to keep peace and order in the world. Military efficiency, far from being a crime, may well be regarded as high statesmanship and national virtue. It is the plain duty of the United States to be so strong and so well prepared that no restless nation in some turbulent or

transitional mood might be tempted by our neglect or slovenliness to enter upon a harmful war. If our navy had been more highly developed and our army in better shape fourteen years ago, we should have had no war with Spain. The Cuban question could have been settled by negotiation, and our responsibilities in the Philippines need not have been assumed. It is to be hoped that Mr. Stimson will hold firmly to the view that high military efficiency on the part of a pacific country like ours involves no threat of international war, but, on the contrary, is an added guaranty of international peace. The great policies of Mr. Root as Secretary of War enormously improved our military efficiency, and Mr. Taft as Secretary of War followed along the same lines. The subsequent contributions of Mr. Root as Secretary of State toward the progress of peace and arbitration were in full accord with what he had done as Secretary of War. Mr. Root, Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Taft, and Mr. Knox have all rendered the most distinguished and world-famed services to the cause of peace among the nations. Yet they have all advocated strength and efficiency in our army and navy and our coast fortifications.

*The Navy
as Insuring
Peace*

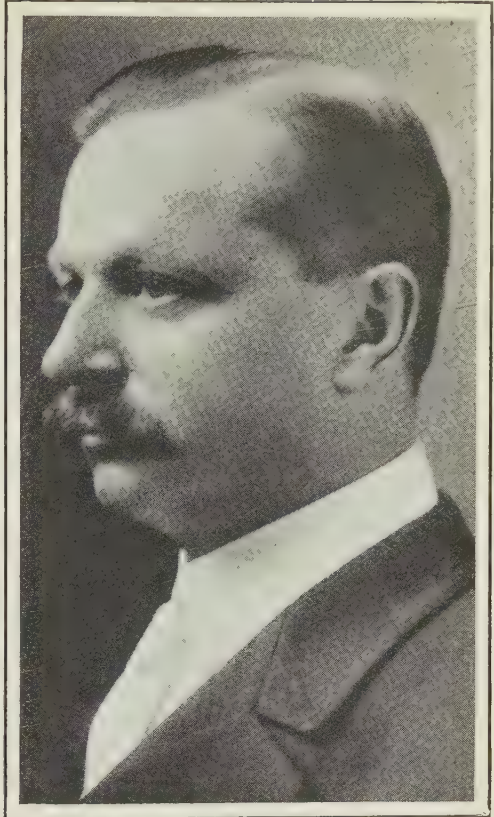
At a dinner of the Economic Club of New York on May 22, the subject for discussion was "International Arbitration: Its Economic and Political Aspects." Among other distinguished guests and speakers was the Secretary of the Navy, Hon. George v. L. Meyer. Mr. Meyer plunged straight into the subject of naval efficiency, and some friends of peace and arbitration might have been shocked and might have regarded Mr. Meyer's crisp and pointed discussion of warships, expert gunnery, proper organization of the administrative bureaus, and the like, as quite out of keeping with an occasion devoted to the praise of arbitration as a remedy for armies and fleets. But Mr. Meyer, who is putting a very high degree of scientific business skill into the management of Uncle Sam's navy, is arguing along the sound and safe line. As a matter of fact, no international police system has yet been constructed. If a high and universal court of arbitration existed, there would have to be some arrangement for the enforcement of its mandates. Until that time comes a peace-loving nation like the United States, influentially situated and without serious reasons for being embroiled with any other country, owes it to itself and to the whole world to be in a position to make its advocacy

of peace a respected doctrine. Mr. Meyer ended his address as follows:

The fleet on July 1, will be made up of twenty-one battleships. Its being kept in its entirety is a safeguard to the nation and its military efficiency an insurance against war. The fleet will be made up of a battleship for the Commander-in-Chief, and four divisions of five ships each, four of each division being kept in active commission and the fifth of each division, in turn, at the navy yards for overhauling. The policy of the future, however, is for the fleet to maintain itself and make its own repairs, as far as possible, going to the navy yards only for docking and alterations and for such repairs as can not be made at sea. The importance of keeping the units together is self-evident. The reduction of the number of repairs at navy yards will reduce the number of navy yards required, and it is important that Congress should be aroused to the necessity of reducing the number of yards on the Atlantic Coast, which is a great drain, not only on the cost of the navy, but an unnecessary tax on the people of the country. To bring this about will require broad views and patriotic treatment and the sentiment of the country should demand of Congress these requirements and the abolishment of yards which are unnecessary to the navy. I ask your support on patriotic and sound economic principles.

*Full Arbitration
with Britain
and France*

Never before in the history of the world has the human mind been so occupied with the problems of substituting law for war, and the victories of peace and righteousness for those of force and slaughter. Nation after nation is giving in its allegiance to the program of conference and arbitration for the settlement of disputes which have so often heretofore been decided at the cannon's mouth. It is a matter for particular gratification that the first comprehensive agreement for arbitrating practically all disputes that can arise between two sovereign nations, including even the much mooted questions of vital interest and national honor, should have been made between the United States and Great Britain. Such an agreement has been formulated in specific terms, and is now awaiting the approval, which cannot be long withheld, of the British Parliament and the United States Senate. At the time the draft of this treaty was transmitted to Ambassador Bryce, a copy was also handed to Dr. Jusserand, the representative of the French Government in Washington. The draft as submitted, which is merely intended as a working basis for negotiations, provides, in general, for arbitration by the Hague court, of all questions, without reservation, that are regarded by the contracting parties as proper for arbitration. All other disputes are to be submitted to a commission of inquiry, to be composed of members of the



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HON. GEORGE V. L. MEYER
(Secretary of the Navy)

permanent Court of the Hague. This commission will investigate and report whether or not the matters in controversy should be arbitrated. "An affirmative opinion by this body will be binding upon both parties to the treaty." From an authoritative statement issued by Secretary Knox to explain the scope of the draft, we learn that its general features are as follows:

(1) It expands the scope of our existing general arbitration agreements by eliminating the exceptions contained in existing ones of questions of vital interest and national honor; (2) It is proposed that all differences that are internationally justifiable shall be submitted to the Hague tribunal unless by special agreement some other tribunal is created or selected; (3) It provides that differences that either country thinks are not internationally justifiable shall be referred to a commission of inquiry, with power to make recommendations for their settlement; (4) This commission is to be made up of nationals of the two Governments who are members of the Hague court; (5) Should the commission decide that the differences should be arbitrated this decision is to be binding; (6) Arbitrations are to be conducted under terms of submission subject to the advice and consent of the

Senate; (7) Before arbitration is resorted to, even in cases where both countries agree that the difference is one susceptible of arbitrable decision, the Commission of Inquiry shall investigate the necessity of arbitration. The action of this commission is not to have the effect of an arbitral award; (8) The commission at the request of either Government shall delay its findings one year to give opportunity for diplomatic settlement; (9) The other features of the draft deal mainly with the machinery of the commission and other essential details.

*Fathered by
Taft and
Knox*

This draft of the proposed treaty was sent to the French and British Ambassadors because they had already indicated the desire of their respective countries to discuss the subject of a general arbitration treaty which would include all differences that might arise between these countries. Our State Department regards the draft as a formula upon which, as a basis, the United States Government is now willing to enter into negotiations with any country that so desires. The credit for the negotiations toward these arbitration conventions must be given, without reserve, to President Taft and Secretary Knox. In a number of addresses, during the past few months, Mr. Taft has expressed the hope that in the very near future, conventions might be arranged with foreign governments to minimize the possibility of war, by submitting to arbitration all questions in dispute. There can hardly arise any question which cannot be arbitrated without detriment to the national honor and dignity of the United States. This is the President's view, and with it, in general, the American people seem to be in agreement. On March 13 Sir Edward Grey, the British Minister of Foreign Affairs, made a noteworthy speech in the House of Commons, to which we referred in our issue for April, in which he said that a proposal for negotiating such a general treaty of arbitration between the United States and Great Britain would be welcomed by the British Government.

*World Signifi-
cance of
the Pact*

The discussion in Parliament and press, following Sir Edward's speech, indicated that the general British opinion was in agreement with his. A notable mass meeting, in favor of the arbitration treaty, at which the Lord Mayor presided, was held in the Guildhall, in London, on April 28. At this meeting a resolution in favor of such a treaty, moved by Prime Minister Asquith, and seconded by former Prime Minister Balfour, was unanimously and enthusiastically adopted. The President hopes

that the treaty with Great Britain will be approved by the Senate during the present session of Congress. The news that this important movement for world peace would be inaugurated with France as well as with Great Britain came as a surprise to many Americans, who have not, perhaps, realized that the French Republic is now one of the staunchest and most important factors in the movement for the "substitution of conference for cannon." It has been rumored that Japan also is anxious to join in the new alignment. The idea of a general understanding for peace between these four great world powers, the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan, preëminently the significant international situation of the month, has been set forth graphically in the cartoon, which we reproduce on a following page, from *Kalem*, the Young Turk cartoon journal of Constantinople. It is a striking indication of the world's progress that the very strongest cartoon of the past month comes to us from Turkey, where so recently political journalism was wholly unknown.

*The Baltimore
Peace
Conference*

Particularly noteworthy resolutions and addresses marked the deliberations of two Peace Conferences held last month, on May 3, at Baltimore, and on May 24 at Lake Mohonk. The third National Peace Conference at Baltimore was opened by President Taft, and its resolutions were the most comprehensive and statesmanlike that have ever been issued from such a gathering. The President's address included a declaration that "there is not, in the whole length and breadth of the United States, among its people, any desire for territorial aggrandizement." This statement drew forth much applause, and will undoubtedly contribute toward putting at ease those timid Canadians who shudder at the idea of annexation, as well as those suspicious Mexicans who are in dread of intervention. Addresses were also made by Mr. Andrew Carnegie, Cardinal Gibbons, Speaker Champ Clark, Huntington Wilson, Assistant Secretary of State, James Speyer, the New York banker, Baron d'Estournelle de Constant and many others. A resolution was adopted providing that the Congress become a permanent body to be known as the American Peace Congress, to meet biennially. Other resolutions endorsed the pending arbitration treaty with Britain; praised Secretary Knox for his efforts to constitute the International Court of Prize and the International Court of Arbitral Justice; and ap-



from the *Graphic*, London

THE OLIVE BRANCH: POLITICAL FOES UNITED IN THE CAUSE OF PEACE

(The Guildhall meeting, in London, convened by the Lord Mayor and Corporation to hear speeches by Mr. Asquith and Mr. Balfour in support of the proposal for Anglo-American arbitration.

Among the distinguished people present was Lord Strathcona, Canadian High Commissioner, shown in the drawing seated next Mr. Asquith. The meeting carried unanimously the resolution, proposed by Premier Asquith, cordially welcoming Mr. Taft's proposal in favor of a general treaty of arbitration between the United States and the British Empire)

proved the suggestion of Mr. Speyer that war loans made by bankers of neutral nations be prohibited; that of John W. Foster that our neutrality laws be revised; and that of Congressman Slayden that the *status quo* of all the Latin-American republics be "mutually guaranteed by a general American treaty as the territory of the nations bordering the North and Baltic seas is guaranteed by Europe."

"Financial
Neutrality"
and War

War, said Mr. Speyer, in his speech at the Conference already referred to, rests with the bankers of the world. Financial neutrality would be the strongest possible influence for peace

between nations. War is primarily bad business, continued Mr. Speyer. At the present, in times of peace certain governments will not permit their bankers to take and place foreign loans in the home market, unless the purposes for which the loan is to be used are known and approved. If such supervision and control of the bankers already exist in times of peace

it does not seem a wide flight of imagination to suggest that the great powers might agree to exercise such control in *times of war* between third parties and to maintain, in future, what, for want of a better term, might be called "Financial Neutrality." In case two nations went to war without first submitting their grievances and differences to arbitration or judicial settlement at the Hague,

why should the other neutral Powers not bind themselves not to assist either of the belligerents financially, but to see to it that real neutrality was observed by their banks and bankers. There is little doubt that this could be done. If no financial assistance could be obtained from the outside, few nations would, in the face of this most effective neutrality of the other Powers, incur the peril of bankruptcy. Some wars would probably not take place at all, and those that could not be avoided, would certainly last a much shorter time.

The address of Assistant Secretary Huntington Wilson was devoted largely to the use that might be made of the much maligned "Dollar Diplomacy." This recently coined phrase, as applied to the expansion of American business interests through the efforts of the State Department, according to the interpretation of Mr. Wilson, means "the sub-

stitution of dollars for bullets; the creation of a prosperity which will be preferred to predatory strife, and, a practical mode of pursuing the ideal of world peace." He spoke of what the United States has already done in averting war between Peru and Ecuador, and Santo Domingo and Haiti and civil war in Honduras. Referring to Mr. Carnegie's munificent gift for the furtherance of universal peace, he concluded:

It occurs to me that the establishment and subsidy of four or five newspapers in Latin America and the Far East, with means to give adequate and respectable telegraphic news service and with a nonpartisan and patriotic guidance of their policy by trustees who should be disassociated from the Government and independently representative of patriotic American citizenship, would be a splendid and proper means to that international true understanding which must be at the basis of peace.

At the seventeenth annual session of the Carnegie Peace Endowment

of the Lake Mohonk Conference for International Arbitration, which was held on May 24, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University, the presiding officer of the Conference, in his opening address, gave out the first authoritative statement of the plan of work adopted by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The trustees of this fund of \$10,000,000, said Dr. Butler, have taken the broadest and most statesmanlike view possible of its aims and purposes. They believe that the time has come when the "resources of modern scientific methods and of modern scholarship should be brought to bear upon the problem of international relations." They have decided to organize an institution for research and public education to carry on the peace work designed by the promoter



Un nouveau concert projeté

دولار اراده تصور ایدیل یکی بر حش

مطلقاً هر شیدن اول ایلک شکایی بکارلی اولور؛ روالی
بیقیمش، اوصاشش ... آرتق عادت اولمشدی . پنده
اوق به وقت کورسهم هان حالی ، خاطری صومق
عقله کلر ، آغزمدن چیقان ایلک سور شو اولوردی :

تسبیل ازدواج نشانی ؟
هم بردوسم وار نکار . هر به وقت یانه کله ،
هوب نکا تصادف ایسه ، یاجود بر اونک یانه کینهم

(This Turkish cartoon, from *Kalem*, a clever Constantinople paper, represents England, the United States, France and Japan as tuning up for harmony and concord)

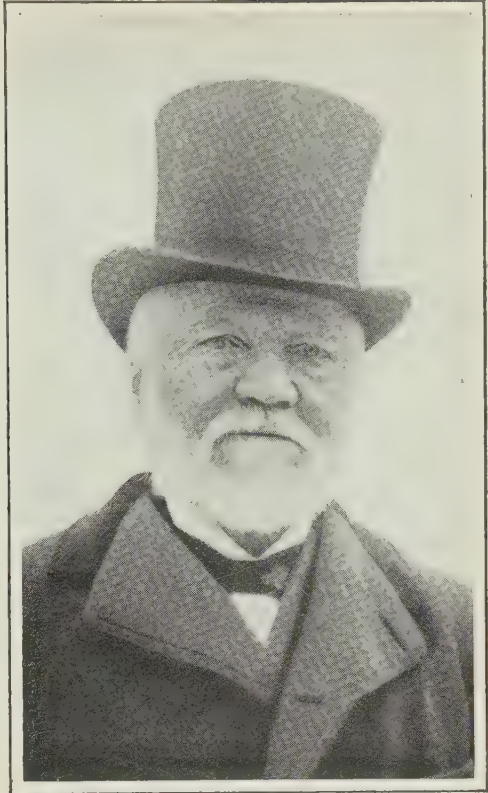
of the idea. This institution will consist of three divisions: A Division of International Law; a Division of Economics and History; and a Division of Intercourse and Education. The division of international law will be under the direction of Professor James Brown Scott, formerly of the Department of State, a member of the second Hague Conference, and Secretary of the American Society of International Law. Its object will be to promote the development of international law by study, by conferences, by aiding negotiations, and by publication. With Dr. Scott will be associated a consulting board composed of some of the most distinguished lawyers in the world. The division of economics and history will be under the direction of John Bates Clark, of Columbia University, an authority of international reputation. With Professor Clark will be associated leading economists of the world. The work of this division will be

to study the economic causes and effects of war; the effect upon the public opinion of nations and upon international good will, of retaliatory, discriminatory, and preferential tariffs; the economic aspects of the present huge expenditures for military purposes; and the relation between military expenditures and international well-being and the world-wide program for social improvement and reform which is held in waiting through lack of means for its execution.

The third division, that of intercourse and education, under a director whose name has, as yet, not been announced, will have for its work

to diffuse information and to educate public opinion regarding the causes, nature and effects of war, and the means for its prevention and avoidance; to establish a better understanding of international rights and duties and a more perfect sense of international justice . . . to cultivate friendly feelings between the inhabitants of different countries, and to increase the knowledge and understanding of each other . . . to promote a general acceptance of peaceable methods . . . and to maintain, promote, and assist such organizations and agencies as shall be deemed necessary or useful in the accomplishment of the purposes for which the Endowment exists.

This organization with its associates, declares Dr. Butler, will speedily come to form a veritable Faculty of Peace, to whom the world will look more and more, alike for instruction and for inspiration. In conclusion, Dr. Butler highly commended President Taft and Secretary Knox for their part in the establishment of the International Court of Prize and the International Court of Arbitral Justice at The Hague.



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THE FOUNDER OF THE "CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE"

*The
Standard Oil
Decision*

On Monday, May 15, Chief Justice White rendered the long-awaited decision in the case brought by the Government against the Standard Oil Company. It was nearly five years ago that the suit to dissolve this great trust was entered upon by the Roosevelt administration, and Mr. Frank B. Kellogg, of St. Paul, with Mr. Charles B. Morrison, of Chicago (assisted by Mr. E. Dana Durand, of the Bureau of Corporations), entered upon the arduous task of proving to the courts that the central corporation, known as the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, ought to be abolished. Their work involved vast research into the industrial history of the United States, as well as the presentation of legal principles. The progress of the suit was set forth from time to time in the pages of this magazine. The case was begun in the Circuit Court for Eastern Missouri, in the autumn of 1906. It was in April, 1909, that the case was argued before an imposing bench of United States Circuit Judges. In November of



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THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT AS NOW CONSTITUTED

(From left to right, standing: Justices Van Devanter, Lurton, Hughes and Lamar. Seated: Justices Holmes, Harlan, Chief Justice White, Justices McKenna and Day)

that year, four distinguished judges rendered a unanimous decision against the company. Since their wisdom and experience were regarded as little, if any, less than that of the United States Supreme Court at Washington, there was never very much doubt as to the result of the appeal.

*Before the
Highest
Tribunal*

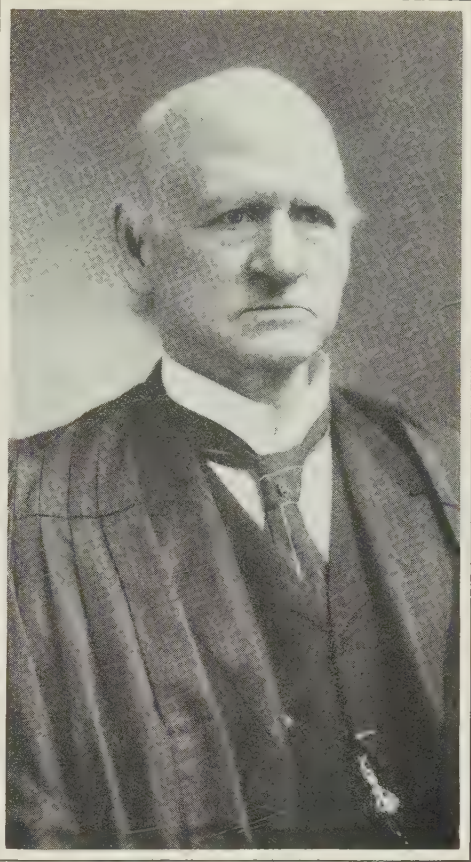
The case was argued before the Supreme Court in March, 1910, but owing to subsequent vacancies on the bench no decision was rendered, and a reargument was ordered for the beginning of the present year. Attorney-General Wickersham and Mr. Frank B. Kellogg made the arguments for the Government, and for the Standard Oil Company there appeared Messrs. John G. Johnson, of Philadelphia, John G. Milburn, of New York, and G. P. Watson, of Pittsburg. No case in the courts has ever before been regarded as so fundamentally affecting our modern economic systems and tendencies. It was not so much a question of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey that concerned the country as the larger question of the interpretation to be put

upon the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, in relation to other corporations and to business in general. It was indeed expected that the court would sustain the views of the Circuit Judges as respects the Standard Oil Company. President Taft and Attorney-General Wickersham had supported the prosecution with the utmost vigor, and meanwhile Messrs. Lurton, Hughes, Van Devanter, and Lamar had been added to the bench by President Taft. While no one would think of accusing the President of packing the bench in order to secure a favorable decision of the Government's case, it could not be thought possible on the other hand that Mr. Taft would have appointed a group of judges whose antecedent opinions would have brought them into conflict with ideas so fully agreed upon by the distinguished Circuit Judges at St. Louis.

*How the
Oil Trust
is Affected*

The Standard Oil Company is made up of a large number of subsidiary corporations, the stock of which is held in whole or in major part by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. The individual shareholders are merely the hold-

ers of the stock of the New Jersey corporation. The decree of the court amounts to a reviving of the full corporate activity of each of the subsidiary corporations. It would seem that in the first instance the holder of a share of the New Jersey company must take his respective proportion of the shares of all the lesser corporations. The Circuit Court had allowed a month for the winding up of the New Jersey company, while the Supreme Court allows six months. The Standard Oil Company has a vast aggregation of properties, consisting of oil refineries, pipe lines, tank lines, oil wells, and so on. There is no confiscation of any of this property. It all remains the property of its present owners. The object of the decision is to prevent the continued use of all this organized industrial capital in such away as to constitute an illegal monopoly or a combination exercising an unreasonable restraint upon interstate trade in the kinds of articles as Standard Oil products. There is no practical way by which the Standard Oil Company's assets and business undertakings can be thrown back into an old-fashioned and undesirable kind of competitive warfare with one another. But if the remedies that the court attempts to prescribe are successful, it will not be either feasible or safe for the Standard Oil interests in the future to use unfair methods to crush out independent oil refiners or competing concerns. The Standard Oil Company has not yet announced its exact plan for reorganization. From the standpoint of its practical business,—that is to say,



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JUSTICE HARLAN



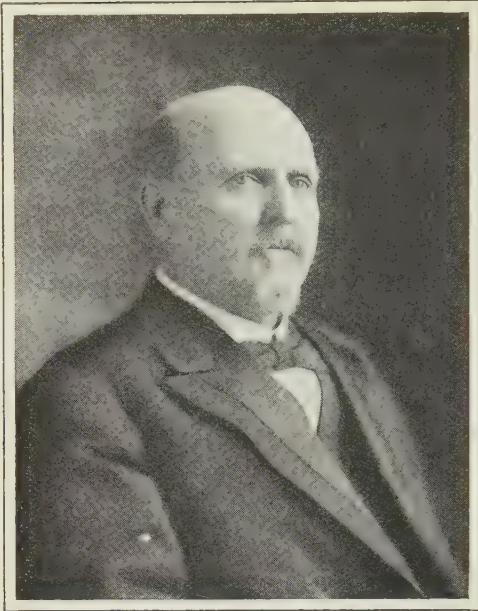
THE BIG ONE THAT DID NOT GET AWAY

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

—the carrying on of its refineries, its pipe lines, and its various factories for the making of commercial by-products, together with its admirable systems for the distribution of its oil and other products,—the public is not likely to see any difference at all.

Justice White's opinion was concurred in by the full bench as respects its application to the Standard Oil Company. Justice Harlan alone announced disagreement with certain broad principles regarding the Sherman Anti-Trust law that business men were awaiting with deep concern. Justice White declared that the Sherman act must not be regarded as prohibiting in a blind, arbitrary way all contracts or agreements that might on their face seem to restrain trade, but that in their nature were reasonable and not contrary to individual rights or the general welfare. Justice Harlan felt that the Chief Justice was importing into the law the word "reasonable," and that this is not in accordance with the

As to
"the Light
of Reason"



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HON. E. J. HILL, OF CONNECTICUT

(Who made the leading Republican speech in opposition to the so-called Farmers' Free List bill in the House)

plain wording of the act or the intention of the lawmakers. The prevailing view, however, is that the act of 1890 was meant to apply to interstate trade under federal control those established principles of the common law that were already applicable to commerce within the States and that required judgment to be given in each concrete case upon the rule of reason and practical justice. Those who had hoped to find in the opinion of the Supreme Court a plain and simple doctrine that could be applied in advance and quite infallibly to every case, are naturally disappointed. Every case that comes up will have to rest upon its intrinsic merits. The business world at large seems to regard this as a fortunate decision; but we have still ahead of us, presumably, a long period of discussion, which at times will be disturbing as well as puzzling, over the regulation of large industrial and transportation companies. We cannot go back to the small way of doing business, and we cannot, without harm, be subjected to continual doubt as to the legal status of a given corporation.

*Tariff Work
in the
House*

The measure known as the Farmers' Free List passed the House of Representatives on May 8, by a vote of 236 to 109. Twenty-four so-called "insurgent" Republicans, nearly all of them from the Northwest, voted with the

Democratic majority. Our readers will remember that Chairman Underwood had previously promised to bring forward this measure in order to give the farmers something to atone for their treatment in the Canadian Reciprocity bill. Some of the things put on the free list in this measure are agricultural implements, boots and shoes, fence wire, cotton bagging, sewing machines, and various other articles of manufacture. The Democrats admit that this would sacrifice about \$10,000,000 of revenue, while Mr. Hill, of Connecticut, speaking against the bill from a Republican standpoint, declares that the loss of revenue would be several times as great. If there were any likelihood of a serious attempt to pass this bill through the Senate we should give it more space. At present it has very scanty prospect of being reported out of the Finance Committee. The Ways and Means Committee of the House has been hard at work upon a bill greatly reducing the duties on wool and woollen goods. It was expected that such a measure would be submitted to a Democratic House caucus so that debate could begin early in June. The question of free raw material has sharply divided the Democratic members of the committee, but a compromise will be reached.



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SENATOR WILLIAM P. FRYE, OF MAINE

*The Senate
In Leisurely
Mood*

Spring weather was very late in arriving at Washington, and the transition to summer heat came suddenly in May. Senators began to grumble more than ever over the extra session. Business in the Senate proceeded in a lag-gard fashion, and although it was expected that the reciprocity agreement would be passed for various reasons, mostly political, it was well known that behind the scenes the measure had few, if any, friends upon its merits in the Senate. Differences among the Republican Senators prevented the election of Senator Gallinger, of New Hampshire, as president pro tem. Senator Frye, of Maine, who has served longer than any other member of either house, has retired from the office of president pro tem. and has gone back to Maine for his health, expressing his opinion that the extra session is a mistake and will result in small accomplishment. The Senate will, of course, pass the Reapportionment bill and seems likely to accept the measure for direct election of Senators. Furthermore, the reopening of the Lorimer case seems almost a certainty. Senator La-Follette has been pushing his bill in favor of submitting the question of Lorimer's election to a committee made up of new Senators, rather than to the regular Committee on Elections. There has been some agitation in favor of an adjournment of the extra session through the hot months of July and August; but the more likely result of protracted hot weather at Washington will be the passage of the reciprocity agreement, and two or three other measures, and final ending of the session by the middle of July. The House has resolved to carry on several investigations, and the committees charged with such work will meet at their own discretion during recess, in order to report at the regular session next winter.

*Panama
Bonds for
the People*

In the offering of \$50,000,000 Panama Canal bonds to the public, announced May 16, the United States is making an experiment to determine the rate of interest our Government must pay real investors who purchase national bonds for pure investment purposes. The bonds of the nation have not for many years been bought or sold on an investment basis, for the reason that they have been available as security for national bank circulation, and this quality has given them a price out of all reason for pure investment purposes,—a price which brought the net yield to the holder to less than two per cent. per an-

num. The new Panama bonds pay 3 per cent.; they are dated June 1, 1911, and will run for fifty years. The Government has not only made them convenient to small investors by issuing them in low denominations (\$100, \$500 and \$1000), but has distributed through the financial institutions of the country hundreds of thousands of circulars and subscription blanks inviting the public to buy the bonds for investment. The plain people of Great Britain and France have learned to invest their savings in the securities of their Government to an enormous extent. Rents are the first and chief investment purchase of the French peasant or tradesman who has saved a few hundred or a few thousand francs. Recently the 3 per cent. securities of the French Government have been selling at 95, while English consols, bearing 2½ per cent. interest, have had a market price of about 79, and German Imperial 3 per cents have brought 83. The selling price of the Panama bonds will give a new and interesting comparison of the credit of the United States with the credit of European countries.

*Legislatures
and
Corporations*

The legislatures of all but seven of the States have been in session at some time since the beginning of the present year. Nearly all of these bodies have completed their labors and adjourned. In only three or four State capitals, out of thirty-nine, has the work of the legislators attracted much attention in the country at large, and in those few instances it is to be noted that the country became interested in their legislation chiefly because the executives of those States had enlisted popular support and the people were eager to see whether or not the campaign pledges of those executives would be redeemed by the legislatures. The attitude of the lawmakers toward the corporations was what mainly concerned the public, and in States that had been in years past notoriously "corruption-ridden" new Governors had been installed who had promised the people to break the union between the corporation managers and corrupt State politicians. The State of New Hampshire has long afforded a horrible example of the railroad influence in politics. Years ago, Mr. Winston Churchill, in his novel "Coniston," exposed the conditions in that staid New England commonwealth, and went out through the State in a vigorous campaign to let everybody know exactly what part the railroad was taking in State affairs. That campaign bore fruit last year in the election of the Hon. Robert P. Bass as Governor.

*Progressive
New
Hampshire*

The election of Governor Bass, a Progressive Republican, was in no sense a partisan victory of the familiar sort, for the new executive quickly let it be known that he placed the State's business far above any temporary advantage. When this was fully understood he obtained the hearty coöperation not only of the leaders of both parties in the Legislature, but of President Mellen of the Boston & Maine Railroad, who clearly saw that the railroad's participation in politics was harmful to its own best interests. This valuable aid once secured, the Legislature passed a bill establishing a public utilities commission with important powers, and at the same time followed the example of New Jersey in revising the State's election laws, and in imposing severe penalties on the most flagrant forms of political corruption. It is alleged that these laws would never have been enacted but for the courage and backbone of the young Governor; yet the only "club" that he held over the heads of the legislators was the one that Governor Wilson of New Jersey has employed to such good purpose,—the "pitiless publicity" that makes cowards of those who shun the light because their methods cannot bear inspection.

*New Jersey's
Brilliant
Record*

Comment was made in these pages last month on New Jersey's admirable bills for electoral reform. No State stood in greater need of such legislation, and no State has gone about the work of political housecleaning more intelligently or effectively. As in New Hampshire, there was a demand for a strong and sweeping public utilities law and the demand was granted. The Legislature also passed an optional workmen's compensation act (again following New Hampshire), greatly extended the merit system in the State's civil service, remodeled the public school system, and enacted a law enabling cities to adopt the "commission" form of government. For placing these various measures on the statute books it is agreed on all hands that the highest credit is due to Governor Wilson, who has more than redeemed his ante-election pledges to the people. But in New Jersey, even more than in New Hampshire, the hearty coöperation of the legislative branch of the State government was essential. The Republican Senate of New Jersey, as well as the Republican minority of the lower house, effectively supported the Democratic Governor in carrying through every one of these reforms, thus affording another instance of the breaking

down of old-fashioned, hard-and-fast partisanship in the practical work of administering a modern State government.

*Governor
Wilson's
Western Trip*

Last month Governor Wilson made a trip to the Pacific coast that attracted unusual attention throughout the country. The Governor was everywhere welcomed by the progressive element of both parties with almost equal enthusiasm. At Kansas City this Democratic Governor of Republican New Jersey was greeted by the Republican Governor of Democratic Missouri. Throughout his journey to the coast similar incidents were continually occurring, and Governor Wilson's enunciation of his political principles was everywhere listened to and applauded by Republicans and Democrats alike. In California Governor Wilson was a guest of the State that has recently grappled with problems of government not unlike those with which he had just been dealing at Trenton. Under the leadership of the Progressive Republican Governor Johnson, the recent session of the Legislature enacted several measures that would have been regarded by former legislatures as too radical to deserve a moment's consideration.

*California's
Advance*

As regards the regulation of public utilities, California's situation is different from that of New Jersey and New Hampshire, and other Eastern States. It was necessary to amend the constitution of California before the control of public utilities could be put completely in the hands of a commission. The Legislature, therefore, drafted, and passed for submission to the people, an amendment of this general effect, which, however, permits municipalities to retain the regulation of public utilities within their own borders. As the Legislature already had the power to regulate steam railroads, authority was given to the State Railroad Commission to regulate rates, and even to prescribe an absolute rate. This measure was passed by a unanimous vote. Constitutional amendments instituting the initiative, referendum, and recall were passed by the Legislature, together with the Oregon plan for the direct election of United States Senators, and the simplification of the direct primary law. Much progress was also made in the discussion of the short ballot, but the advocates of this important reform failed to secure the two-thirds majority needed to submit the requisite constitutional amendment to popular vote. The advance made

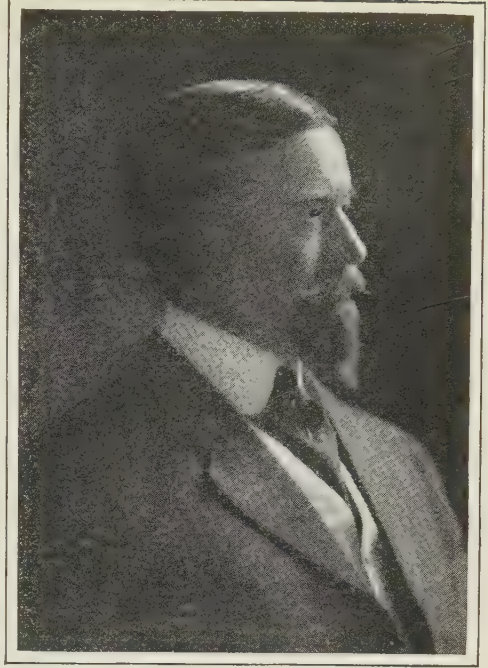
by the State in the matter of labor legislation was noteworthy. In addition to a workmen's compensation act, similar to those of New Hampshire and New Jersey, the Legislature passed a law limiting the hours of labor for women to eight hours in any one day, or forty-eight hours in any one week. This is said to be the most advanced legislation of the kind thus far enacted in the United States.

*The
"Oregon
System"*

In addressing college men at San Francisco Governor Wilson pointed out the changed conditions in politics and declared that the movement for the initiative and referendum does not mean that the people are tired of representative government, but that they are tired of government that represents certain interests. When he reached, in his Western journey, the home of what is known as "the Oregon system" in government, Governor Wilson commended the initiative, referendum, and direct primary as creditable to the citizenship of the State and announced his approval of the use of the recall for all administrative officers, but his disapproval of the application of the principle to the judiciary, on the grounds that there is too much danger of impatience and haste in popular efforts to secure better government, and that the same arguments that obtain for the recall of executive officers, chosen to do certain specific things, do not apply at all to judges. In other respects Governor Wilson found much to commend in the Oregon system and declared his purpose to recommend some of its features to the New Jersey Legislature for adoption in that State.

*The New
York Police
Department*

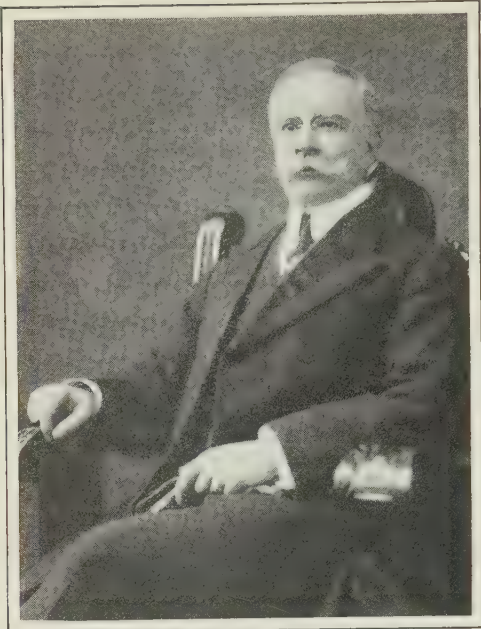
It is frequently said that the administration of New York City stands or falls according to its conduct of the police department, and this comment has been made with added force in the recent discussion of proposed amendments to the city charter. Since the present commissionership of police for New York City was created, each commissioner has remained in office but a little over a year and a half,—three and a half years less than the term prescribed by statute. Thus the commissioner has come to be regarded as the temporary head of an army of 10,000 men. He is himself removable for any cause, however trivial. The men of the uniformed force have a life tenure. They cannot be dismissed without a trial which may be reviewed by the higher courts. It would seem that in proposing



MR. JAMES CREELMAN

(Who is now very active and influential in the government of New York City)

changes in the charter it would be well to consider the advisability of giving the commissioner of police a longer term, and making him removable only upon specific charges after a full, fair, and impartial trial before the proper courts. It is clear that the present system of frequent changes in the commissionership has not tended to efficiency in the service. Mayor Gaynor recently caused an investigation of charges against the department to be made by Mr. James Creelman, as president of the Municipal Civil Service Commission. Mr. Creelman found that names on the eligible list for appointment as patrolmen had been arbitrarily rejected and that illegal appointments had been made. Candidates rejected by the police department on the ground of physical unfitness had been examined by the medical inspector of the Civil Service Commission and found qualified for service. He also found that it had been charged for many years that candidates for the police force had to resort to corrupt practices in order to prevent their rejection by the department. Whatever the outcome may be, it is probable that Mr. Creelman's investigations have made it extremely difficult, if not impossible, for the New York Police Department to be conducted with its former disregard of the civil-service regulations.



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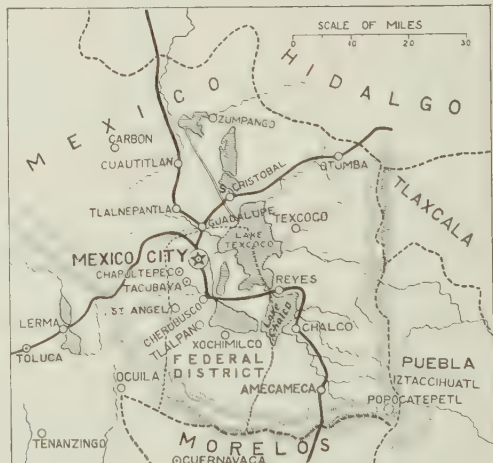
SEÑOR DON FRANCISCO LEON DE LA BARRA
(Who last month became Provisional President of Mexico
upon Diaz's resignation)

The success of the Mexican revolution was assured last month when the aged President Diaz, stretched on a bed of sickness, promised that before the first day of the present month both he and Vice President Corral would retire; that Señor de la Barra, Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs, would be installed as temporary President, with General Madero, the revolutionary leader, as his chief counselor; and that a new general election would be held within six months. This news was published on May 18. Later the announcement was made that the cabinet would be reorganized. Madero, acting with de la Barra as a sort of joint regency, will choose the members of the new cabinet, it being understood that at least three members will be acceptable to the revolutionary leader. These members fill the important offices of the Interior, Communications, Justice and Foreign Affairs. Temporary President de la Barra, it was agreed, would appoint the Minister of War. The choice of the governors of more than half the states of the republic was also conceded to the revolutionists. The Government further promised to settle all debts contracted by the insurrectos, including the pay of the soldiers; to grant amnesty to all rebels, and pensions for their killed and wounded. It agrees to equalize taxation, and

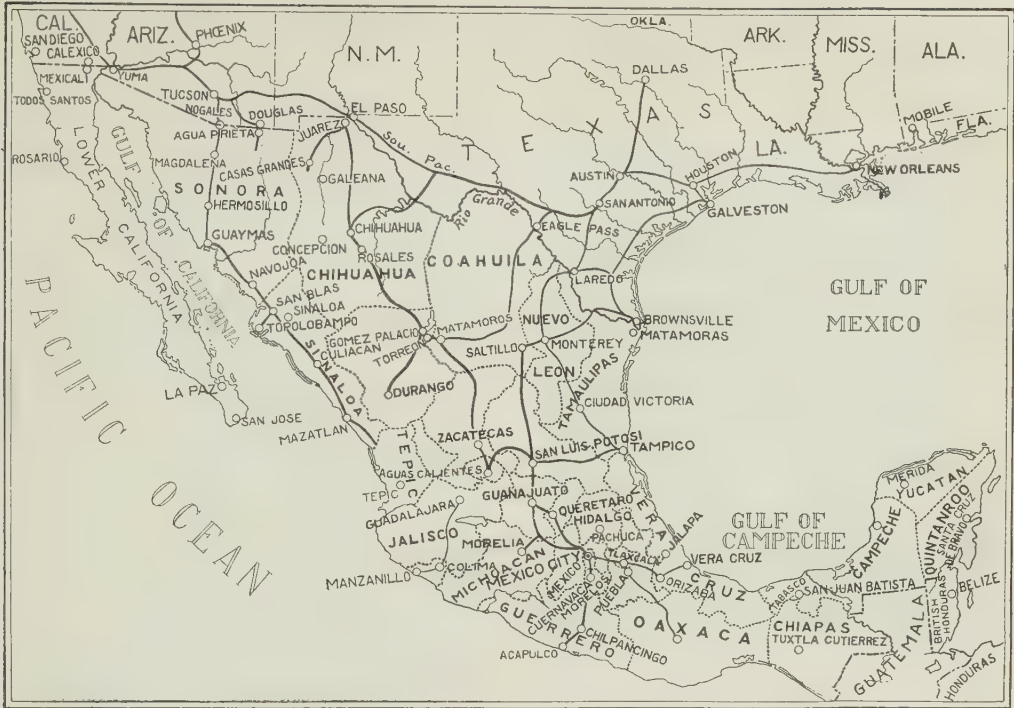
promises to buy up all large landed estates, and resell them to the landowners. This division of the lands has already been begun at Mexico City. During the five days' armistice agreed upon, these agreements were put into proper documentary form and officially signed on May 21.

*Carrying
Out the
Reforms*

With this power of appointment in their hands, the enactment of so much progressive legislation by the Chamber of Deputies gives the progressive element all they have claimed, and has virtually assured the success of the revolution. After the agreement upon a five days' truce, which began on May 17 between Señor de la Barra, acting for the Government, and General Madero, the revolutionary leader was invited to Mexico City to aid in the political reorganization of the republic. There were apprehensions lest some of the insurrecto leaders might not strictly observe the truce. It was also feared that de la Barra might appoint, as his Minister of War, General Bernardo Reyes, who was expected to reach the capital city during the last few days of May. Reyes was an anti-Diaz candidate for the presidency two years ago; he is a soldier of ability and undoubted patriotism, but is widely suspected of reactionary tendencies. However, the details of the new order may change and shift during the coming weeks, the large lines of the reform are fixed, and a successful economic and political revolution has been effected in Mexico. This was acknowledged formally by one of the former Government supporters in a speech on the floor of the Chamber of Deputies on May 19.



MEXICO CITY AND THE FEDERAL DISTRICT
(In which last month two well-organized insurrecto armies
were operating within sixty miles of the capital)



THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO, SHOWING HOW WIDESPREAD HAS BEEN THE FIGHTING

Speaking in favor of the new Amnesty bill, Deputy Manuel Calero said:

The revolution has triumphed throughout the country both in a military and a political sense. The President and his cabinet have recognized it by entering into peace negotiations with the opposing party. The President has become convinced that the revolution is popular and has promised to present his resignation. Under these circumstances it is only fair that the prison gates should be opened to political suspects, for, if the Government orders its forces to turn over entire states to the armed revolutionists, it is unreasonable to hold in confinement any longer unarmed adherents of the revolution.

*Madero's
Victorious
Advance*

By the capture, on May 10, of the important town of Juarez, across the Rio Grande from El Paso, Texas, the insurrecto leader, General Francisco Madero, secured a capital for his "Provisional Government" of Mexico. After more than three days' continued fighting, during which artillery and machine-guns were used on both sides, General Juan Navarro, the Federal commander, surrendered with his command of 1500 men to General Pascual Orozco. A good deal of ammunition, five pieces of artillery, and nearly five hundred prisoners were taken. From this old historic town, the starting-point, more than forty years ago, of the march of General Benito

Juarez for the overthrow of the Emperor Maximilian, the insurrectionary leader then announced that he would launch his campaign to take Mexico City and overthrow President Diaz. It was admitted by the central government that the march to the Mexican capital would find a large part of the country already in the hands of the insurrecto leaders, and would result in bringing many recruits to their banners, already flying over armies aggregating 27,000 men.

*A
Maderist
Cabinet*

Following up his victory at Juarez, General Madero set up a provisional government in that town. He has all along styled himself the "Provisional President" of Mexico. As soon as his victorious men had established themselves in Juarez, he announced his cabinet. Dr. Vasquez Gomez, who had been insurrectionary agent at Washington for some months past, was appointed Minister of Foreign Relations; Gustavo Madero, brother of the leader, Minister of Finance; and Pino Suarez, one of the peace commissioners, Minister of Justice. "Provisional" Ministers of War and the Interior were also named. Madero then stated publicly that military operations would thereafter be conducted at such a distance from the United States boundary that Americans



Photograph by Brown Bros., New York

GEN. BERNARDO REYES, MEXICO'S STRONG MILITARY MAN
(Who may be appointed Minister of War)

and American interests could not possibly suffer. He abandoned this position of undoubted military advantage because, he said, he was "not willing to bring about complications with a nation which has always given us proofs of its friendship." His victory at Juarez not only gave the insurgent cause the prestige that attracts new recruits, but also munitions of war to make their forces formidable in the field. In Juarez he had a customs town through which supplies and munitions of war might be brought in from the United States. Madero has proven himself to be a man of some statesmanship and a good deal of strength of character. He has treated his prisoners and wounded in a humane and exemplary way; kept his army, in the main, sober, and under discipline; and, in general, has given proofs, not only of his valor, but of his discretion and humanity.

"On to
Mexico
City"

The first point of importance after Juarez to the southward, the city of Chihuahua itself, was besieged by the insurrectos for several weeks. The important manufacturing towns of Torreon and Cananea fell into their hands early last month, and a number of other important places, including Durango, Mazatlan, Ojinaga and Cuernavaca, within seventy-five miles of the capital, were surrounded by insurgent forces, with the Federal defenders hopelessly

outnumbered. With virtually the entire State of Sonoro, including the capital, Hermosillo, handed over to the triumphant rebels, and all the railroad lines south of Chihuahua tied up, it seemed that the entire northern part of the republic had been lost to the government. On May 16, a force of insurgents actually captured Pachuca, within sixty miles of Mexico City. The successes of Madero impelled the national authorities to make extensive preparations for the defense of the capital. At various points in the city guns were mounted, and a large proportion of that fine police force, known as rurales, con-



From Collier's Week 3

MEXICO'S TRIUMPHANT REVOLUTIONARY LEADER,
GEN. FRANCISCO MADERO

concentrated for an emergency. Señor de la Barra further announced that his government would be pleased to see the foreign colonies take "any independent action that they might see fit to assist in the preservation of law and order in the city."

*The End of
Diaz's
Career*

Ever since the beginning of the present insurrection, Señor Madero and the other leaders of the revolt have maintained that the resignation of President Diaz was an absolute necessity before any real reforms could be assured to the people. While General Diaz is in power, said Madero in his manifesto issued on May 6, "all laws will be fictitious, and all promises tricks of war." Time and time again important and dignified leaders of thought in the republic have brought to the attention of the aged President this feeling that he should step aside. Last September, on the attainment of his eightieth birthday, and the centenary of the republic, Porfirio Diaz was the idol of the Mexican people. Recently there has been wide opposition to his rule, and it is plain that there could not have been any lasting peace in the country until the tyrant, as the Mexican popular hero had come to be called, had been overthrown. Up to a few weeks ago, Diaz steadily refused even to consider the idea of resignation. The revolution, he maintained, was scattered and headless, and should he step aside, there was no one strong enough to restore order. "I came into the city of Mexico fighting; I will leave it accompanied by bullets." There are many in the republic who have believed it would be disastrous for Diaz to retire. Most of the conservative elements, however, apparently believe that Diaz, having first declined, made a mistake in having himself elected to the presidency for the seventh time, and a still greater mistake in forcing Ramon Corral, an exceedingly unpopular man, upon the republic as Vice-President. Early last month the aged statesman issued a manifesto promising to resign the office of President as soon as peace was restored. "We do not want manifestos," said Madero, when this news was brought to him, "we want resignations." Porfirio Diaz belongs to the past. He has kept himself, or has been kept, ignorant of the extent of the disaffection in his country. The Diaz who remade and built up Mexico no longer exists, and it is to be regretted, for the judgment of history upon his life and achievements, that last autumn he did not persist in his determination to refuse a seventh reelection.



PORFIRIO DIAZ, AT THE AGE OF THIRTY-ONE, JUST AFTER HIS VICTORY OVER THE FRENCH IN 1867
(From "Diaz, Master of Mexico," by James Creelman)

*Progressive
Legislation at
Mexico City*

Meanwhile the Congress in session at Mexico City has been enacting into law a number of the measures demanded by the more progressive elements of the country. On April 25, the Chamber of Deputies approved the bill forbidding the reelection of the President, Vice-President, and governors of the states. This law, as applied to the governors, has already been ratified by a number of the state legislatures. On May 14, a bill for the division of the rural estates was introduced in the Chamber. This measure provides for the purchase, by the government, of large tracts of land in each district, such tracts to be offered for sale only to persons who will agree to farm for themselves. The terms are to be easy, and there are definite arrangements for irrigation, road construction, and the guarantee of title. The bill at once passed its first reading, and it was expected that, by the first of the present month, it would have been enacted into law. Unusual freedom and a high order of debate were evident in the discussions on the floor of the Chamber during these proceedings. Representatives of the old régime were criticized openly, and proposed changes in the constitution and statutes were debated with as much frankness as in the House of Representatives at Washington. Announcement was made of the projected introduction of an employer's liability law.



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AMERICAN SOLDIERS CARRYING WOUNDED MEXICANS ACROSS THE INTERNATIONAL
BRIDGE, FROM JUAREZ TO EL PASO



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COLONEL GARIBALDI, GRANDSON OF THE ITALIAN LIBERATOR, WHO HAS BEEN LEADING A
FORCE KNOWN AS THE FOREIGN LEGION IN THE SERVICE OF THE MEXICAN INSURRECTOS



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THE MEXICAN PEACE CONFEREES AT THEIR FIRST SESSION AT JUAREZ LAST MONTH

(From left to right: Señor José María Pino Suarez, Intermediary; Dr. Vasquez Gomez, insurrecto agent; Señor Francisco I. Madero, Sr., insurrecto peace commissioner; Judge Carbajal, federal peace commissioner)

*The
Peace
Conferences*

The program of the insurrection, last month, was marked chiefly by the efforts of the Federal government and the insurrectionary leaders to come to some definite agreement whereby hostilities might cease and a lasting peace be assured. On April 22, after a long negotiation, an armistice of five days, to begin April 25, was agreed upon between the Federal authorities and General Madero. The Mexican cabinet authorized the Foreign Minister, Señor de la Barra, to negotiate with Dr. Vasquez Gomez, the Madero agent. The Federal commissioners chosen were Judge Francisco Carbajal, a member of the Mexican Supreme Court, a jurist of the highest attainments, and a man of integrity of character, Señor Miguel Ahumada, recently appointed Governor of the State of Chihuahua, a man generally acceptable to the progressive elements in Mexico, and Señor Rafael Hernandez, an eminent lawyer and close friend of Secretary Limantour. The insurrectos were represented by Señor Madero, father of the insurgent leader, Dr. Vasquez Gomez and Señor José Pino Suarez, provisional Governor of Yucatan. The principal demands of the insurrectos have been for the resignation of President Diaz, and the holding of a new election, at which there should be a free and

unhampered popular vote. To these were added, after the battle of Juarez, the demand for the resignation of the entire Cabinet. Aside from the matter of Diaz's retirement, the government in Mexico City had, by the middle of last month, agreed to practically everything in the way of administrative and economic reforms demanded by the insurrectos. This is not so remarkable when it is remembered that most of these demands are already guaranteed by the Mexican constitution. The abuses complained of have merely grown up without the warrant of the organized government of the land.

*No Intervention
by the
United States*

Ever since the mobilization of General Carter's "maneuver division" early in March persistent reports have been circulated, not only in the United States, but in Mexico and throughout Europe generally, that such mobilization was merely the forerunner of intervention. There has been some demand for the launching of our troops across the border, not only from those whose relatives or friends have been wounded in the fights along the boundary or whose property has been destroyed, but also from those whose large financial interests were in danger throughout Mexico. Even on the floor of the Senate an open demand was



Photograph by G. G. Bain, N. Y.

THE MAIN PORTION OF THE NATIONAL MEMORIAL TO
QUEEN VICTORIA
(Unveiled last month in London)

made, last month, in a speech by Senator Stone, for armed interference by our troops. It is true that President Taft and his cabinet have carefully avoided any public expression that might be construed as indicating an intention to intervene. The President has repeatedly declared that he would never order troops across the border, except upon the explicit direction of Congress. The reports of military interference, however, had become so persistent that, on May 12, Secretary Knox sent to Ambassador Wilson at Mexico City the following instructions:

You are authorized officially to deny, through the local press and otherwise, as under instructions to do so, all foolish stories of intervention, than which nothing could be further from the intentions of the Government of the United States, which has the sincerest friendship for Mexico and the Mexican people, to whom it hopes will soon return the blessings of peace, which is not concerned with Mexico's internal political affairs, and which de-

mands nothing but the respect and protection of American property and life in a neighboring republic. You will use the language of this instruction.

A number of resolutions have been introduced in Congress asking the War Department for complete and detailed information concerning "the deaths of American citizens within twenty-five miles of the Mexican border as a result of the revolution." Following a cabinet meeting on May 5, which was devoted to a discussion of the entire Mexican situation, the State Department, for the first time, gave out several extracts from reports received by it from our diplomatic and consular officers in Mexico. The situation was described as intolerable at many points. Disorder and laxness of administration approaching almost to anarchy, were reported by American consuls at many different points throughout the Republic.

*Coronation
of
King George* The month of June will be a notable one in British Imperial affairs. First of all happenings

in importance and appeal to the British people will be the coronation, on the 22d, of his Majesty King George the Fifth, King of Great Britain and Ireland, and Emperor of India. The usual elaborate preparations have been made for the impressive ceremony. The United States will be represented on that occasion, as Special Ambassador, by Mr. John Hays Hammond, a little about whose career we present on another page this month. The coronation season will extend over an entire month. In fact, the first event of the festivities took place on the sixteenth of last month, when the splendid National Memorial monument to the late Queen Victoria was unveiled in London. This occasion was made particularly noteworthy by the presence of the German Emperor and Empress, and their daughter, the Princess Victoria Louise, who spent a week in London, as the guests of King George and Queen Mary. The Imperial Conference, in which all the self-governing dominions will participate, will also be held this month. More than half the members of the Parliament, representing all the political parties, have memorialized the Premier, expressing their opinion that "the time has arrived to take practical steps to associate the Overseas Dominions in a more permanent manner with the conduct of Imperial affairs, if possible, by means of an established representative council of an advisory character in touch with public opinion throughout the Empire."



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KING GEORGE AND QUEEN MARY AT THE OPENING CONCERT OF THE CORONATION FESTIVITIES



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OPENING OF THE CORONATION FESTIVITIES IN LONDON LAST MONTH
(The King and Queen on their way to the Crystal Palace, passing the Queen Victoria Monument)

*The Commons
Passes the
Veto Bill*

Amid the wildest enthusiasm on the part of the government supporters, the Veto Bill, for the curtailment of the powers of the House of Lords, passed its third reading and became a law on May 15, by a vote of 362 to 241, the majority of the government combination. Almost all the amendments proposed by the opposition during the long course of the debate were defeated. Premier Asquith, however, consented, last month, to several changes, one of which is important and regarded by the conservatives as a concession. This extends the period over which the Peers may delay a measure. The measure was at once sent over to the Upper House and the next day passed its first reading in that body. The Lords have been discussing their own scheme for reform, that fathered by the Marquis of Lansdowne, the Unionist leader. The Lansdowne bill provides for a second chamber of 350 members, who shall no longer have the right to sit merely because they are Peers. According to this plan, the new House of Lords would consist of 100 members elected by the hereditary Peers, 100 nominated by the Crown, and 120 elected by outside constituencies. The other 30 would include the royal princes, the archbishops and the bishops of the Established Church, and the law lords. None of these would be permitted to hold a seat for longer than 12 years, and one-quarter of the total number would retire every third year. The composition of this new Upper House would be a compromise between guarding vested interests and yielding to the demand for progress, for, in Great Britain, as has been said, it is impossible to start with a clean slate. It is probable that nothing further will be

done in the matter of the reorganization of the Upper House until after the coronation. Then will come the final struggle. Then, also, will Mr. Asquith have to settle his political bills with his allies, the Irish.

*Insurance
Against
Age, Illness,
and "No Job"*

Having cleared the way, by the passage of the Veto Bill, for its program of liberal constitutional legislation, the British House of Commons, last month, took up several very important measures intended to alleviate poverty in the United Kingdom. Two such measures are already in operation. These are the old-age-pension system for workmen over 65 years of age, and the labor exchanges, by which the unemployed may learn of vacancies in their trades, and be put in communication with employers needing workmen. On May 4 Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, introduced in the Commons the next step in this policy, in the form of a measure providing for the insurance of working men and women against both sickness and unemployment. The insurance against sickness is compulsory, and will apply to all wage-earners with an income of less than \$800 a year, excepting persons under 65, who may come under the old-age-pension act. Provision is also made for the care of soldiers, sailors, teachers, civil servants, and "casual" laborers. The plan for insurance against unemployment, which is also compulsory, will first be applied only to the building and engineering trades. Opinion among British political leaders, regardless of party politics, is highly in favor of this measure, which the Chancellor characterized as "the most comprehensive piece of constitutional legislation ever introduced into Parliament." The Imperial budget presented by the Chancellor, on May 16, showed a surplus of approximately \$28,000,000. The only new feature it contained was a proposal to pay members of the House of Commons a salary of \$2000 annually.



JOHN BULL HAS SOMETHING FOR EVERYBODY
(Insurance Against Old Age, Illness and "No Job")
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane)

*A Real
Cabinet
for China*

The long awaited edict abolishing the Grand Council, under which the Chinese Empire has been governed for centuries, and the substitution of a constitutional cabinet of ten members, was published to the world on May 8. It is true that the cabinet is made up of the former Grand Councilors, with the addition of Liang Tun Yen, ex-President of the Foreign Board, who recently made a tour of the United States. The change of name, however, is in itself a step toward the establishment of a truly constitutional government.

Prince Ching, a typical Chinese reactionary, becomes nominal Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs. Liang Tun Yen, however, who is styled second Foreign Minister, will be the real moving spirit in the conduct of China's relations with the rest of the world. It is part of the plan to make the cabinet ministers dependent upon the will of the majority in the National Assembly. This was one of the chief demands of the Chinese liberal element, and the concession has already appeased, in a measure, the malcontents who have been leading the insurrection in the south. At the same time, the central government issued an edict authorizing the conclusion of a new loan of \$50,000,000, negotiated by European and American financiers, for railroad construction. This edict stated that the government, "noting that the provinces have demonstrated their inability to construct trunk railroads, has decided to relieve the provincial authorities of the control of such projects, and immediately construct trunk lines throughout the Empire . . . for this purpose employing foreign loans and foreign engineers."

*The
Canton
Uprising*

Early last month an anti-Manchu plot against the throne of China became a revolution on a small scale. It started with a riot in Canton, the metropolis of Southern China, and more bitterly opposed—perhaps because farther off—than any other part of the Empire, to the Manchu dynasty. It is not easy, at this distance, to understand the details of Chinese popular movements. Economic conditions centering in the famine in the south and the plague in the north, however, have been the moving causes of the present revolutionary disturbances. By the middle of last month these had assumed grave proportions. Several cities were taken by the rebels and many lives and much property destroyed. Americans have a special interest in the preservation of law and order in South China, since there are many American mission stations in that section of the Empire.

*Australia
and the
Referendum*

Two important constitutional questions were submitted to a popular referendum in Australia on April 26. The first proposed to give the Federal Parliament power over all matters of trade, commerce, and industry within the Commonwealth. The second provided for the nationalization of monopolies, and for giving the Federal government power to take possession, upon equitable terms, of any enterprise officially declared by Parliament



Photograph by G. G. Bain, N. Y.

PRINCE CHING, WHO LAST MONTH BECAME THE FIRST CONSTITUTIONAL PREMIER OF CHINA

to constitute a monopoly. Both measures were defeated by popular majorities of more than 250,000 votes. The total vote on these measures was approximately a million and a quarter, out of a total population of four and a quarter millions. This is an unusually large proportion of the voting strength; apparently nearly everybody went to the polls. Each of the States voted solidly against the propositions, except Western Australia, which gave small majorities of approximately 500 for them. A heated campaign had been fought on these questions. The idea of state rights as opposed to too much "federalization" has been a burning question in Australia for several years. The bills embodying the propositions were passed last November by both Houses of the Federal Parliament, subject to a popular referendum. The measures were vigorously advocated by the Socialist and labor parties, and their rejection is looked upon as a serious setback for labor as an organized political movement in Australia. The labor party, which went into power in the Commonwealth last summer, has heretofore had things pretty much its own way in the legislature. It has been in favor of liberal emigration laws for the white races, and has done a great deal toward building up



THE THREE BIG MEN OF THE NEWLY CONSTITUTED CHINESE CABINET

(From left to right, 1, Hsu Shih-Chang, formerly President of the Board of Posts and Communications, who becomes one of the Vice-Premiers; 2, Liang Tun Yen, Vice-President of the Foreign Board—the Wai Wu Pu—who becomes the real Minister of Foreign Affairs—the Premier being only nominal Foreign Minister; 3, Na-Tung, ex-President of the Foreign Board, who also becomes a Vice-Premier)

the country. The platform upon which it was elected is not a long one. Its principal planks demand the maintenance of a "White Australia"; Protection; the national-ization of monopolies; a graduated tax on unimproved lands; a Commonwealth bank; reduction of public borrowing; and insurance against unemployment.



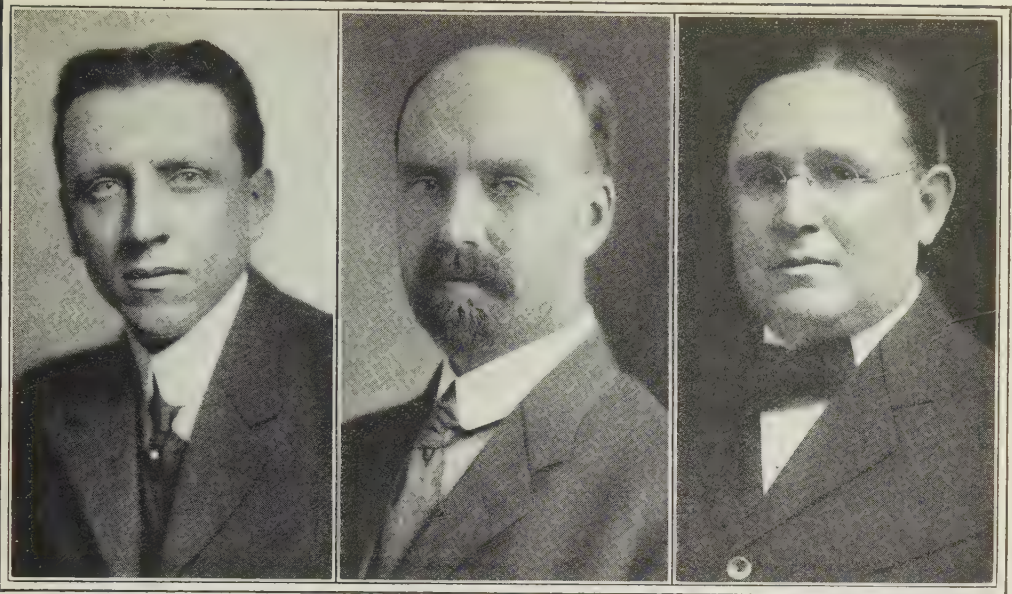
SHENG HSUAN HUAI
(Interior)

PRINCE PU LUN
(Agriculture and Commerce)

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL YIN CHANG
(War)

CHINESE CABINET MINISTERS OF WIDE EXPERIENCE

(These three lower portraits are reproduced from the *Far Eastern Review* of Shanghai)



DR. JOHN G. BOWMAN
(State University of Iowa)

DR. ELMER E. BROWN
(University of New York)

DR. L. H. MURLIN
(Boston University)

THREE UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS RECENTLY APPOINTED

New Heads of Universities

During the past few weeks several university presidencies have been filled by the election of men already eminent in academic service. As a successor to Chancellor McCracken, of the New York University, the trustees of that institution were successful in securing Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, for the past five years United States Commissioner of Education. Dr. Brown will begin his new duties with the cordial assurance of the coöperation of Columbia University and the College of the City of New York in the broad field of academic work at the metropolis of the nation. The new president of the Iowa State University is Dr. John G. Bowman, a native of Iowa and a graduate of the university, who has done graduate work in the East, and for the past four years has been secretary of the Carnegie Foundation. Dr. Bowman's work has brought him in touch with the most recent developments of college education throughout the country, and, for a man of thirty-four, he is exceptionally well qualified for the important responsibilities of State university administration. Boston University has recently called to its presidency Dr. Lemuel H. Murlin, who has been president of Baker University, Kansas, since 1894, while Dr. Guy Potter Benton, for more than eight years president of Miami University, Ohio, and former president of the Upper Iowa Univer-

sity, has been unanimously elected president of the University of Vermont and State Agricultural College. This vacancy was caused a year ago by the death of Dr. Matthew H. Buckham, who had been the university's chief executive for nearly forty years. President Buckham, like President Murlin, is a native of Ohio, that prolific mother of colleges and college administrators.

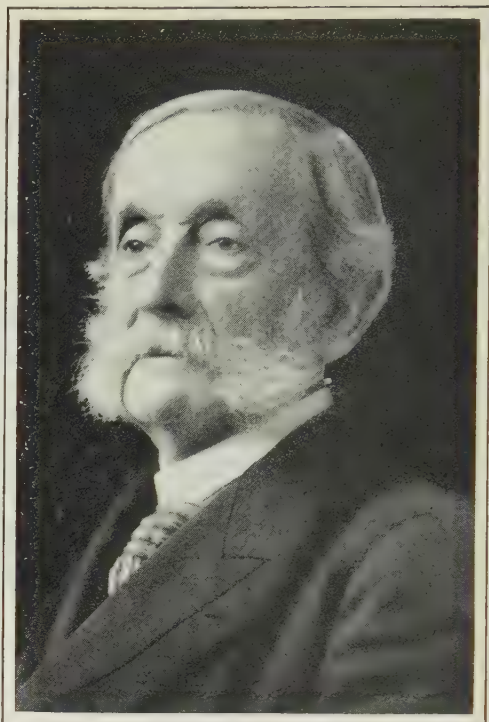
Interest in Rare Books

In alluding, last month, to the burning of the New York State Library at Albany, mention was made of the high value placed upon early American imprints and manuscript sources of American history. Many of the books and manuscripts that were lost in the Albany fire can never, by any possibility, be duplicated, and librarians have been baffled in any attempt to make an accurate estimate of the money loss to the State of New York occasioned by this needless fire. A striking illustration of the value placed by collectors upon rare books was afforded, last month, in the sale of the private library gathered by the late Robert Hoe of New York. The first section of this library, consisting of 3500 lots, brought an average of nearly \$300 each, or an aggregate closely approaching \$1,000,000, and far exceeding the receipts of any previous auction sale of books in the world's history. The most important item of the sale was the

famous Gutenberg Bible, which brought the astonishing price of \$50,000. Hardly less remarkable, however, was the interest displayed in rare Americana. The record price of \$10,000 was paid for a copy of John Winthrop's "Declaration of Former Passages and Proceedings Betwixt the English and the Narowgansetts with Their Confederates," published at Cambridge, Mass., in 1645, by John Daye. This is said to be the first book on historical subjects printed in English America, and chronologically the third surviving example of the Daye press at Cambridge. It is one of only four known copies, two of which are in public institutions.

*Literary
Treasure
Houses*

Perhaps in this connection it may not be amiss to direct attention to the few historical institutions in this country that are devoting themselves especially to the collecting of early American imprints. One such institution, the American Antiquarian Society, at Worcester, Mass., is now attempting to make a collection of all American imprints up to 1820. It is also perfecting its files of American newspapers, of which it possesses a remarkably large number. Our careless American public has given too little thought to the importance of such historical materials. Even now the work of the American Antiquarian Society on manuscripts has been abandoned for lack of funds, although its value is clearly revealed by the publications of former years. Such institutions as that at Worcester should be liberally supported by Americans of wealth who desire to foster historical research and thus to stimulate the interest of the rising generation in our national heritage. Besides the Library of Congress at Washington, the nation can now boast of several modern buildings especially planned for the housing of just such literary treasures as those which needlessly perished at Albany. Only last month the doors of the beautiful and commodious New York Public Library were thrown open after a decade spent in construction. This building is described and pictured on page 701 of this number. It is one of the three or four leading structures of its kind in the world, and within its massive walls the rich collections of Americana and other rare books, manuscripts, and prints amassed during the history of the Lenox Library, and the newspaper files and series of documents of the old Astor Library will have as safe a storage place as man can devise. The building will accommodate 3,000,000 volumes and nearly 2000 readers at one time.



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COL. THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON

(The veteran reformer and author who died last month)

In the death of Col. Thomas Higginson, at Cambridge, Mass., last month, there passed away the last of the little group of New England radicals whose names, a generation ago, were household words throughout the North. Colonel Higginson had won a brilliant reputation as an anti-slavery advocate some years before the Civil War, but that was only one of the causes that he championed. As early as 1850, he had signed a call for a national woman suffrage convention, and in later years, as editor of the *Woman's Journal*, and through other channels, he rendered conspicuous service to the movement for woman's advancement, not only on political lines, but in many phases of social reform. His advocacy of woman's rights was always marked by breadth and liberality, suffused by the kindness of feeling that was inseparable from his disposition. The later developments of the equal suffrage agitation, one of which was illustrated by the great parade in New York City on May 6, may not have altogether met with Colonel Higginson's approval, but that did not deter him from a vigorous advocacy of the main principle at issue even to the very last of his unusually active literary career.



THE SUFFRAGETTE PARADE OF MAY 6 COMING DOWN FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK CITY

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From April 21 to May 21, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

April 21.—The House passes the Canadian Reciprocity bill by vote of 266 to 89.

April 24.—The Senate confirms the appointments of Curtis Guild, Jr., as ambassador to Russia, W. W. Rockhill as ambassador to Turkey, and Henry S. Boutell as minister to Switzerland.

April 25.—In the House, general debate on the Farmers' Free List bill is begun.

April 27.—In the Senate, Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) resigns as president pro tempore. . . . The House passes the Reapportionment bill.

April 28.—In the Senate, the personnel of the standing committees is announced and approved after a protest by Mr. LaFollette (Rep., Wis.) on behalf of the twelve "progressive" Republican members.

May 1.—The Senate discusses the proposed Canadian reciprocity agreement.

May 4.—In the Senate, the hour of meeting is set for 2 o'clock. . . . In the House, Mr. Hill (Rep., Conn.) argues strongly against the Canadian reciprocity bill.

May 8.—The House, after a discussion lasting two weeks, passes the Farmers' Free List bill, without amendment, by a vote of 236 to 109.

May 9.—The House votes to investigate the Post-Office Department and the Sugar Trust.

May 11.—In the Senate, a number of "insurgent" Republicans prevent the election of Mr. Gallinger (Rep., N. H.), the caucus nominee, as president pro tem.

May 16.—The Senate confirms the nomination of Henry L. Stimson as Secretary of War. . . . The House adopts a resolution providing for an investigation of the Steel Trust.

May 17-18.—In the Senate, Mr. Crawford (Rep., S. D.) speaks against reciprocity with Canada.

May 20.—The House debates the provisions of the Arizona constitution.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

April 22.—Governor Eberhart, of Minnesota, signs the bill providing for the nomination of United States Senators by direct vote.

April 23.—Postmaster-General Hitchcock announces that a deficit of \$17,600,000 has been wiped out during the past two years.

April 24.—Gen. Theodore A. Bingham, formerly Police Commissioner, is appointed chief engineer of the Bureau of Highways in New York City.

April 25.—Samuel Adams, of Chicago, is appointed First Assistant Secretary of the Interior.

April 27.—President Taft, speaking at a dinner in New York City, makes an extended plea for reciprocity with Canada.

April 28.—Lloyd C. Griscom resigns the presidency of the New York County Republican Committee. . . . Capt. John A. Gibbons is appointed superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis.

April 30.—The close of the Treasury's fiscal year shows a surplus as against last year's deficit.

May 1.—Charles H. Hyde, Chamberlain of the City of New York, is indicted by a grand jury,

charged with accepting bribes. . . . The United States Supreme Court decides that the federal government controls the forest reserves, not the States.

May 2.—A grand jury at Columbus, Ohio, begins an investigation of the charges of legislative bribery. . . . The Ohio Senate passes the House bill providing for the Oregon plan of electing United States Senators by direct vote. . . . James H. Preston (Dem.) is elected mayor of Baltimore.

May 3.—The Massachusetts Senate rejects the federal income-tax resolution passed by the House. . . . Five members of the Ohio General Assembly are indicted on the charge of soliciting bribes.

May 4.—Robert R. Moore is appointed Chamberlain of the City of New York, succeeding Mr. Hyde, who resigned following his indictment.

May 6.—The biennial session of the Colorado Legislature comes to an end without the choice of a successor to the late Senator Hughes.

May 7.—President Taft informs a delegation of farmers that he believes reciprocity with Canada to be good for all the people of the United States and declines to argue the matter with them.

May 10.—The Pennsylvania House ratifies the proposed income-tax amendment.

May 12.—Jacob M. Dickinson resigns his portfolio as Secretary of War; Henry L. Stimson (Rep.), of New York, is appointed to succeed him.

May 15.—The Supreme Court of the United States declares the Standard Oil Company to be a combination in restraint of trade and orders its dissolution within six months; the Court also sets aside the sentence of imprisonment for contempt imposed upon Samuel Gompers, Frank Morrison, and John Mitchell by the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. . . . The Democratic members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House fail to reach an agreement regarding a reduction of the tariff on wool. . . . Governor Dix urges the people of New York to cooperate toward the prevention of forest fires.

May 16.—The \$50,000,000 Panama Canal bond issue is thrown open to popular subscription. . . . Three more Ohio legislators are indicted for bribe solicitation.

May 17.—A special investigating committee of the Illinois Senate reports that the election of United States Senator Lorimer could not have been accomplished without bribery and corruption. . . . President Taft sends to the Senate the Tariff Board's report on the print-paper industry in the United States and Canada.

May 18.—The Illinois Senate adopts a resolution asking the United States Senate to reopen the Lorimer investigation.

May 19.—The Government brings suit at New York against the so-called Lumber Trust of the Eastern States, alleging unreasonable restraint of trade.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

April 23.—The first constitutional election is held in Monaco.

April 24.—Unionist amendments to the second clause of the Veto bill are defeated by large majorities in the British House of Commons.

April 25.—An armistice is declared between the insurgents and the federal troops in Mexico. . . . The Mexican Chamber of Deputies adopts bills

providing that the President, Vice-President, and governors of states may not be elected for a second term. . . . The first parliament of the Union of South Africa comes to an end.

April 25-26.—Several attempts by the Unionists to amend the Government's Veto bill are defeated by large majorities in the House of Commons.

April 26.—A Government measure before the Prussian Diet appropriates \$65,750,000 for railway improvements. . . . The voters of Australia reject two measures, urged by the commonwealth government, which would increase federal control over commerce and industry.

April 27.—A serious revolutionary outbreak occurs at Canton, China.

May 1.—Quiet is restored at Canton, but the insurrectionists capture five small towns in the vicinity.

May 2.—The British House of Commons passes most of the important clauses of the Government's bill curtailing the power of the upper house.

May 4.—David Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, explains in the House of Commons the Government's scheme of insurance against sickness and unemployment. . . . Ambassador Bryce and Sir Wilfrid Laurier confer at Ottawa regarding the preservation of Pacific seal herds.

May 5.—The bill giving women the right to vote passes its second reading in the British Parliament by vote of 255 to 88. . . . The Portuguese bishops decide that the Government's Separation law is not acceptable to them.

May 6.—Peace negotiations between the Mexican Government and the insurgent General Madero come to an end; the rebels again prepare to attack Juarez.

May 7.—President Diaz of Mexico declares that he is willing to resign after peace has been restored. . . . An anarchist plot against the Minister of the Interior and the Prefect of Police is discovered in Paris. . . . The Nicaraguan Assembly authorizes President Estrada to arrange an American loan.

May 8.—The Chinese Grand Council is abolished by imperial edict and a constitutional cabinet of ten members substituted. . . . Lord Lansdowne's bill for the reconstitution of the British House of Lords is introduced and passes its first reading. . . . Emperor William of Germany is reported to have made an inspection of forts on the French frontier.

May 9.—The Supreme Court of Austria decides that Archduke John, who disappeared twenty years ago, is dead. . . . The first court of King George V. is held at Buckingham Palace.

May 10.—The Mexican insurgents capture the city of Juarez, making prisoners of General Navarro and his entire command. . . . Juan Estrada resigns as President of Nicaragua, Vice-President Diaz assuming the presidency and appointing a cabinet. . . . The Duma votes \$2,000,000 to fight cholera and the plague in Russia.

May 11.—Francisco Madero, Jr., proclaims himself provisional president of Mexico and appoints a ministry. . . . Baron Rosen, ambassador to the United States, is appointed temporary director of the Russian foreign office.

May 15.—The Veto bill is passed on its third reading in the House of Commons, by a majority of 362 to 241. . . . Francisco Madero and Judge Carbajal, representative of the Mexican Govern-

ment, confer at Juarez regarding peace terms. . . . Prince Lidj Jeassu, fifteen years old, is proclaimed Emperor of Abyssinia.

May 16.—The Veto bill passes its first reading in the British House of Lords. . . . The budget as presented by Chancellor Lloyd-George provides a salary for members of Parliament.

May 17.—Señor de la Barra, Mexican minister of foreign relations, announces that President Diaz and Vice-President Corral will resign before May 31. . . . The Finnish diet is dissolved.

May 21.—A treaty of peace is signed at Juarez between the official representative of the Mexican Government and three of the insurgent leaders; President Diaz is to resign and Señor de la Barra is to serve as Provisional President.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

April 21.—The American troops near the Mexican border are ordered to enforce strictly the neutrality laws.

April 22.—President Diaz frees Blatt, Converse, and Brown, the Americans who had been in a Mexican jail for two months, charged with aiding the insurgents.

April 24.—United States officials in Porto Rico arrest Ex-President Morales of Santo Domingo, his Vice-President, and a general, charging them with plotting to organize a military expedition against the Dominican government.

April 26.—Mexico formally protests to Great Britain against the landing of British marines at San Quentin, Lower California.

April 27.—France notifies the signatories to the Algeiras convention that French intervention in Morocco is necessary to protect foreigners at Fez.

May 3.—The ministers of Haiti and Santo Domingo, at Washington, are instructed to draw up and sign a protocol submitting the long-standing boundary dispute to arbitration.

May 5.—Ratifications of the Anglo-Japanese commercial treaty are exchanged at Tokyo. . . . Russia inquires of Japan her reason for establishing a consulate at Aigun, Manchuria, near the frontier. . . . The International Opium Congress is postponed until July, 1912.

May 8.—Germany warns France of the serious consequences that might follow a French occupation of Fez. . . . An agreement between China and Great Britain, providing for the gradual extinction of the Chinese production and importation of opium, is signed at Peking.

May 9.—President Fallières of France is warmly welcomed on a visit to Brussels.

May 17.—The draft of a general treaty of arbitration is submitted by Secretary of State Knox to the British and French ambassadors. . . . The German-American potash conference at Hamburg reaches an agreement regarding prices and taxes.

May 20.—The \$30,000,000 loan for the construction of railways in Hunan and Hupei provinces, China, is signed at Peking by representatives of American, British, French and German bankers.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

April 22.—John J. McNamara, secretary and treasurer of the International Association of Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, is arrested with two other men, charged with responsibility for the dynamiting of the Los Angeles *Times* building, in October, 1910. . . . Thirty-two persons are killed



HENRI MAURICE BERTEAUX, THE FRENCH MINISTER OF WAR, WHO WAS CRUSHED TO DEATH BY A MONOPLANE AT PARIS ON MAY 21

by the collapse of a railroad bridge over a gorge in Cape Colony. . . . The American pavilion at the International Art Exhibition, Rome, is formally opened by the Italian King and Queen.

April 23.—The German census shows a large increase in the male population, and a falling death rate. . . . The Pacific Mail steamer *Asia* is wrecked 200 miles south of Shanghai.

April 24.—Dr. Elmer E. Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, is chosen as chancellor of New York University. . . . A copy of the Gutenberg Bible, the first important work to be printed from movable type, is sold at auction in New York City for \$50,000.

April 25.—Official figures show a total of 95,884 deaths from the bubonic plague in India during March.

April 27.—John W. Alexander's painting, "Sunlight," is awarded first prize at the international art exhibition of the Carnegie Institute, Pittsburg.

April 28.—Premier Asquith and Mr. Balfour, leader of the Opposition, are among those attending a meeting at the London Guildhall to further an arbitration treaty with the United States.

April 29.—The derailment of a school-teachers' excursion train near Easton, Pa., results in the death of twelve persons. . . . The International Exhibition of Industries and Labor is opened at Turin, Italy.

April 30.—The first of a series of observances of

Cardinal Gibbons' jubilee is held at Baltimore. . . . Fire destroys about one-third of the city of Bangor, Me., rendering thousands homeless and causing a property loss amounting to \$2,500,000.

May 1.—The Lehigh Valley, Ontario & Western, and Delaware & Hudson railroads decide to sell their coal property in accordance with the Supreme Court decision. . . . Serious disturbances marked the observance of May Day by the workmen of Paris.

May 2.—The \$10,000 prize offered by the Metropolitan Opera Company, of New York, for an American opera, is awarded to Horatio W. Parker and Brian Hooker.

May 4.—Twenty-one new indictments are returned at Los Angeles against the three alleged dynamiters of the *Times* building. . . . The German Antarctic expedition under Lieutenant Filchner sails from Hamburg. . . . The Congress of International Law, at Madrid, confirms the right to use aerial craft in war.

May 5.—Lincoln Beachey flies over the capitol at Washington in an aeroplane. . . . The Third Peace Congress, in session at Baltimore, endorses James Speyer's plan for financial neutrality during war.

May 6.—Three thousand women parade in New York City in furtherance of the cause of woman suffrage.

May 8.—Dr. Frederic A. Lucas is appointed director of the American Museum of Natural History, in New York. . . . Fire destroys a large section of the town of Yamagata, Japan. . . . The breaking of an ice dam floods Fairbanks, Alaska.

May 11.—A committee representing 400 members of the British House of Commons pledge themselves to further the Anglo-American arbitration movement.

May 12.—King George and Queen Mary open at London the Festival of Empire, an exposition of the empire's resources.

May 14.—The general assembly of the International Institute of Agriculture meets at Rome; King Victor Emmanuel congratulates the Americans on their representative delegation.

May 15.—A lockout of 40,000 workmen is declared at Copenhagen by the employers' federation, efforts to settle the difficulty having failed.

May 16.—A massive memorial to Queen Victoria, in the plaza before Buckingham Palace, is unveiled by King George.

May 18.—A fire at the Kansas City stockyards kills a thousand sheep. . . . Guy Potter Benton, president of Miami University (Ohio), is elected president of the University of Vermont.

May 21.—Henri M. Berteaux, French Minister of War, and Premier Monis are struck by an aeroplane at Issy-les-Moulineaux; the former is killed and the latter severely injured.

OBITUARY

April 21.—Rear-Adm. Richard Inch, U. S. N., retired, 67.

April 22.—Harry Fenn, painter in water colors and illustrator of books, 73. . . . John Passmore Edwards, the English publicist, philanthropist, and peace advocate, 88.

April 25.—Charles Wertheimer, the well-known London art collector, 60.

April 26.—Rev. Dr. Peter Henry Steenstra, of Cambridge, Mass., a leading authority on the Old Testament, 78.

April 27.—Henry W. Carey, a prominent Michigan lumberman, 60.

April 30.—Dr. Cameron Piggotty, professor of chemistry in the University of the South, 55.

May 1.—Dr. Henry Knapp, the eminent eye and ear surgeon of New York, 79. . . . Hannah Whitall Smith, a well-known writer on religious subjects, 79. . . . Catherine Cooper Hopley, an English authority on reptiles and birds. . . . John Henry Flagg, former clerk of the United States Senate, 68.

May 2.—Col. Theodore Schaeck, the Swiss aeronaut. . . . John H. Vanderpoel, for more than thirty years teacher of drawing and painting in the Art Institute of Chicago, 53.

May 3.—Nils Poulson, of New York, a prominent engineer and iron manufacturer, 68.

May 4.—Albert Beard Kittredge, formerly Senator from South Dakota, 50. . . . Karl von Hieronymi, Hungarian Minister of Commerce. . . . Adolph Woermann, a leader in German shipping, 63.

May 5.—Edgar A. Spencer, Justice of the Supreme Court of New York, 63.

May 6.—Halsey Cooley Ives, director of the St. Louis Museum of Art, 64. . . . John T. Bird, ex-Congressman and formerly vice-chancellor of New Jersey, 82.

May 8.—Rev. Dr. John H. DeForest, a veteran Congregational minister in Japan.

May 9.—Thomas Wentworth Higginson, the historian and essayist, 87.

May 10.—Rear-Adm. William C. Gibson, U. S. N., retired, 73. . . . Nathan C. Giffin, a prominent Wisconsin lawyer and jurist, 78.

May 13.—Charles G. Warner, formerly vice-president of the Missouri Pacific Railway, 67.

May 14.—William R. A. Wilson, M.D., a writer of books for boys, 41.

May 15.—Abiram Chamberlain, formerly Governor of Connecticut, 74. . . . James Smith, chairman of the manufacturing committee of the Standard Oil Company, 53. . . . Charles Hamlin, brigadier-general of volunteers in the Civil War, 73.

May 17.—Ex-Congressman William B. Baker, of South Dakota, known as "the father of the rural free delivery," 71. . . . General Allyne Cushing Litchfield, a cavalry officer during the Civil War, 75. . . . Samuel Scudder, the naturalist and author of works on butterflies, 74. . . . Admiral Rodney Maclaine Lloyd, of the British navy, retired, 70.

May 18.—Gustav Mahler, the eminent composer and conductor, 50. . . . Prof. Marcus N. Horton, for many years identified with secondary schools in New York State and one of the oldest graduates of Williams College, 81. . . . Very Rev. James McGill, of Philadelphia, a widely known Roman Catholic priest, 84.

May 20.—Frederick Porter Vinton, the Boston portrait painter, 65.

May 21.—Henri Maurice Berteaux, French Minister of War, 59.

CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



"NOW, BY GINGER, I KNOW RIGHT WHERE I'M AT"
From the *Leader* (Cleveland)

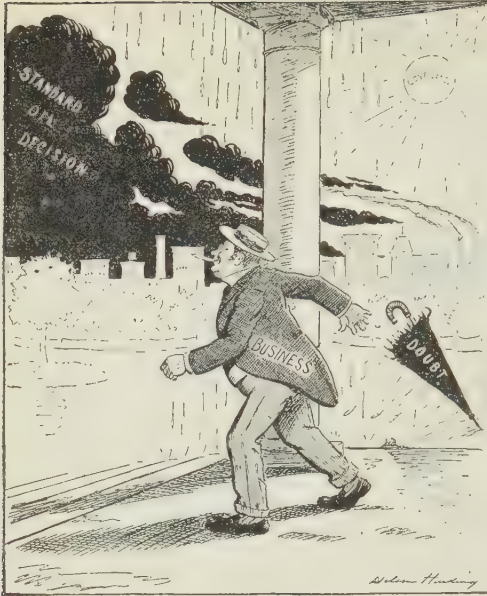
THE long-awaited decision of the Supreme Court in the Standard Oil case was rendered on May 15. Pending the result of the court's deliberations, the whole industrial machine had been allowed to slow down. Now that the verdict is known, however, Uncle Sam can resume normal speed.



A STERN DECREE
From the *North American* (Philadelphia)

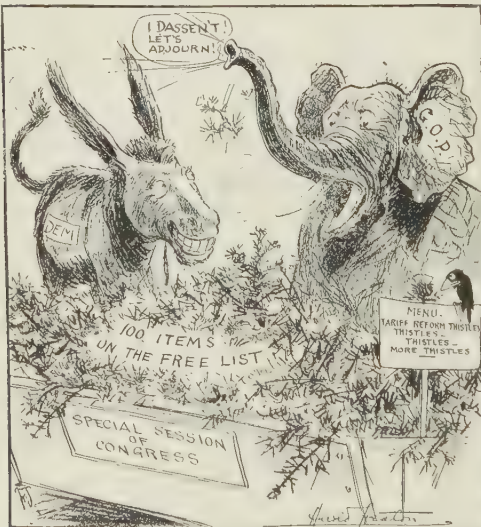


IT DIDN'T HURT A BIT
From the *Journal* (New York)



WEATHER CLEARING!
From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn)

Further comment on the Standard Oil decision will be found in our editorial pages. Congress, also, has put some industrial combinations on the "anxious seat." Resolutions have been passed by the House and committees appointed, to investigate both the United States Steel Corporation and the American Sugar Refining Company. Meanwhile the House has been attacking "the interests" from another angle, putting a



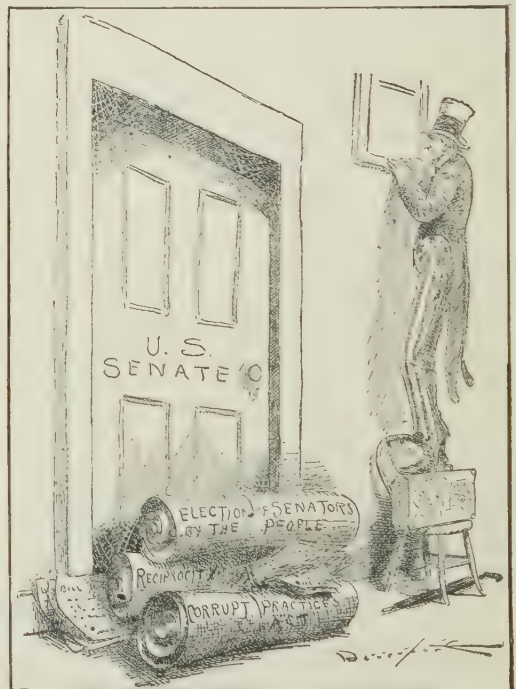
"LETTING I DARE NOT WAIT UPON I WOULD"
From the *Inter Ocean* (Chicago)



ON THE ANXIOUS SEAT
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)

number of articles on the free list and materially reducing the tariff on others. The activity of the House, in fact, has piled up several important measures at the door of the Senate for action by that body.

Schedule "K," dealing with wool, has been



IN EXTRAORDINARY SESSION
From the *Globe and Commercial Advertiser* (New York)



SHEEP-SHEARING—FOR WHOSE BENEFIT?

From the Record (Fort Worth, Texas)

an object of particular interest to Congress, and a considerable reduction in the rates on this class of goods was provided for in the House bill last month. This business of tariff-making is no easy matter, as the Democratic majority no doubt fully realizes, in

spite of the brief and simple formula supplied by Mr. Carnegie. His suggestions, as shown in the cartoon below, will, however, appeal to the large majority of the American people. But to the stand-pat protectionists, anything in the nature of downward revision looks very much like killing the goose that lays the golden eggs—which Dame Democracy is pictured as doing in the cartoon below.



TEACHER CARNEGIE GIVES A LITTLE ASSISTANCE

From the Inland Herald (Spokane)



THE GOOSE WITH THE GOLDEN EGGS

From the Inquirer (Philadelphia)



"BENEFACTOR OF HUMANITY"

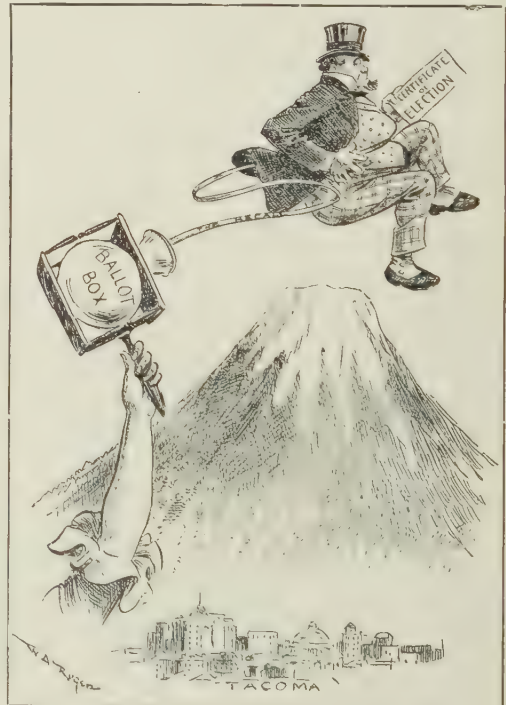
Mr. Carnegie being presented with a gold medal by the representatives of twenty-one American republics
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica)

The presentation to Mr. Andrew Carnegie of a gold medal by the representatives of twenty-one American republics was a fitting recognition of the material aid rendered by him to the cause of peace and friendship between nations. Mr. McCutcheon's cartoon on this page rightly suggests that labor, for its own best interests, should be foremost in the fight against the use of violence in its behalf. We are reminded by Mr. Rogers' cartoon that Tacoma has recently attracted a good deal of

attention by reason of its liberal use of the "recall" privilege in its city charter.



LABOR VS. VIOLENCE
From the *Tribune* (Chicago)

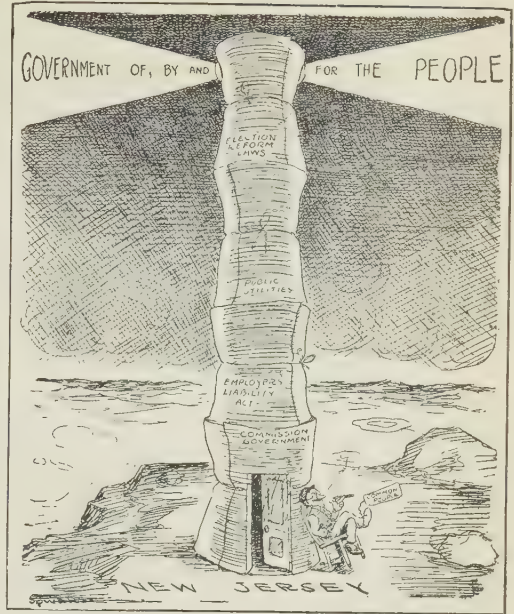


"NOW THAT I SO SOON AM DONE FOR,
I WONDER WHAT I WAS BEGUN FOR"
From the *Herald* (New York)



THE CORONATION MAGNET

"About thirty millions of American dollars will be spent in London during the coronation of George V."—News item
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth)



THE BEACON LIGHT

From the *Jersey Journal* (Jersey City)

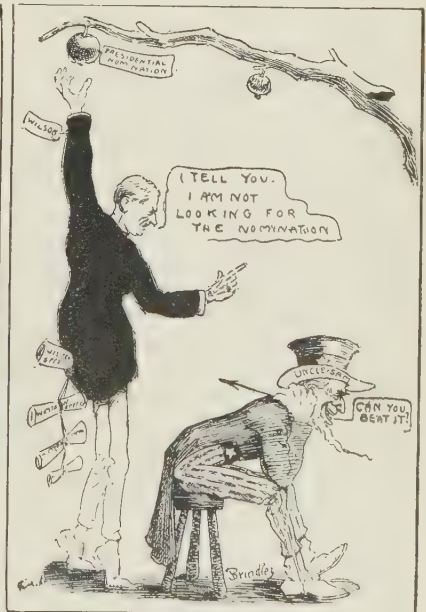
The coronation of George the Fifth this month will draw many visitors from this side to the great royal show, making John Bull the richer by a considerable number of American dollars. The brilliant record of the New Jersey legislature in the enactment of popular legislation has erected a veritable "beacon light"—to use the cartoonist's phrase—for

the guidance of other States. No wonder New Jersey appreciates having such a man as Governor Wilson "around the house." The Governor has been making an extensive "swing around the circle" during the past month, and his replies to frequent questions on the subject of a Presidential nomination have been very interesting.



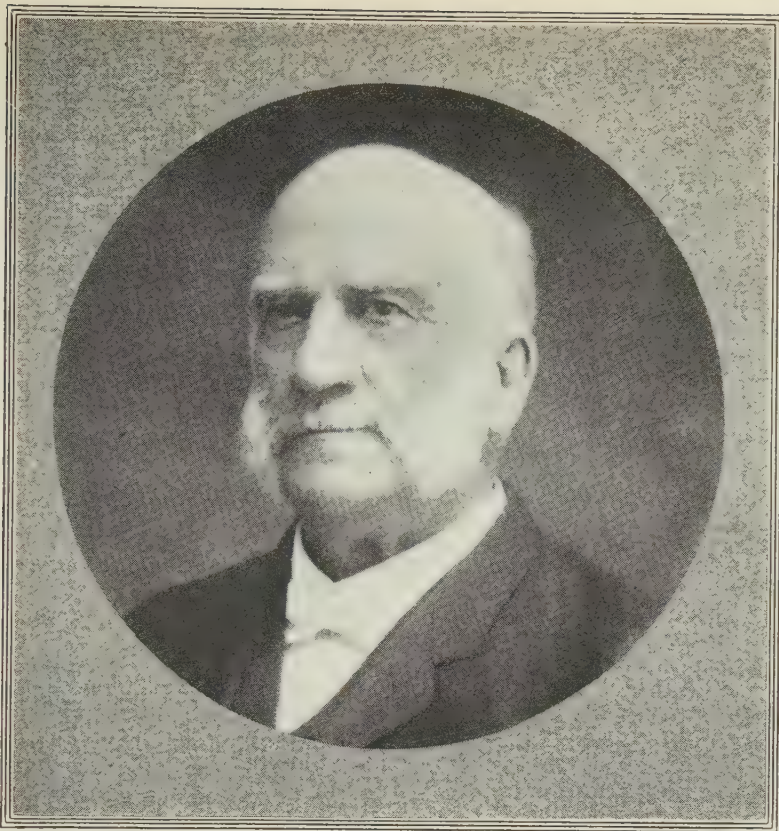
"MY! IT'S NICE TO HAVE A MAN AROUND THE HOUSE!"

From the *North American* (Philadelphia)



ISN'T WOODROW THE CONVINCING OLD BOY?

From the *State Gazette* (Trenton)



SEVENTY YEARS OF PREPARATION FOR SEVEN YEARS OF WORK

(This does not imply that highest usefulness did not characterize Dr. Knapp's life during these seventy years, but that the experience of seventy years of splendid living and high service were massed in one successful effort to meet a great crisis in our national life)

SEAMAN A. KNAPP'S WORK AS AN AGRICULTURAL STATESMAN

BY WALLACE BUTTRICK

(Secretary of the General Education Board)

SEAMAN A. KNAPP was born in Essex County, New York, on the shores of Lake Champlain. His father was a physician. I have heard him speak of the generous culture and fine wisdom of his father and mother. He was graduated from Union College, Schenectady, N. Y., in 1856, during the presidency of Dr. Eliphalet Nott. For some years he was teacher and associate manager of Fort Edward Collegiate Institute. In 1863 he went to Iowa, where he became a successful farmer and stock raiser. Before long he was talking to his neighbors about improved methods of farming; later he became state lecturer on agricultural topics and afterward teacher and president of the State Agricultural College at Ames, Iowa.

In 1884 he went to Louisiana and inaugurated the upland rice industry. For several years he was president of the Rice Association of America. In connection with his promotion of rice-growing he studied general agricultural conditions in the Southern States. When the Hon. James Wilson became Secretary of Agriculture in 1897 he sent for his old friend, Dr. Knapp, and asked him to become his chief associate in promoting better agricultural conditions in the Southern States.

Before taking up actively this work in the South Dr. Knapp visited the West Indies and the Far East, to report on the resources of our new dependencies.

THE BOLL WEEVIL

In 1902 the cotton boll weevil appeared in Texas. Its ravages were so severe that for a time people thought that Texas would no longer be a cotton-producing State. Tenant farmers abandoned their growing crops. Owners were disheartened. Most direful results were prophesied. I have seen large towns in Texas in which two-thirds of the business houses, including banks, were closed and boarded up. This condition of panic and despair was Dr. Knapp's supreme opportunity. His seventy years of training fitted him for this crisis. He at once assumed the leadership of the people and by the introduction of new methods and more diversified crops he made the boll weevil enemy the farmers' best friend.

HOW TO GROW COTTON UNDER BOLL WEEVIL CONDITIONS

The average cotton planter did not select his seed, but took it as it came from the gin. Dr. Knapp taught that the first necessity of a growing crop is good seed. He found and furnished seed which through careful selection for many years had developed strong reproductive power. A seed requires well-prepared soil. Dr. Knapp taught the planter how to prepare the seed-bed by deep fall plowing and adequate fertilizing. The cotton plant, like all other plants, gets most of its growth from light and air. Dr. Knapp taught the planter to plant his cotton in rows wide apart, to thin out the "cotton weed" in the rows so that the plant might have the benefit of light and air, and to run the cultivator constantly. The result, well known to all who are familiar with this chapter of experiences, was that the cotton plant, under intensive cultivation, produced its boll before the weevils were ready to lay their eggs. This insured a crop, and in the very regions where the boll weevil had done its most deadly work cotton was again successfully grown.

PLANTERS OR FARMERS

The *farmer* is a man who first makes his living on the farm, *i. e.*, he raises things which his family and his stock may eat. In connection with this growing of the necessities of life the farmer raises some sort of "money" crop,

wheat or oats or corn or cotton. The *planter* raises a money crop, whether cotton or wheat or oats, and with the proceeds of these money crops purchases what his family and his stock may need to eat. Dr. Knapp sought to transform the planter into a farmer. He taught that it was the first business of the cultivator of the soil to make his living on the farm or plantation and that it was false economics to make a money crop and then buy corn and meat and canned goods from some far-away place. This gospel he taught by the practical methods which he called "Farmers' Coöperative Demonstration Work."

Before long the planters of Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, where the boll weevil existed, not only "made" cotton but began to raise corn and vegetables and hogs and chickens and cattle. In 1904, at one little railway station in Texas, there was shipped one car load of hogs; in 1905, through the influence of Dr. Knapp's teaching, they shipped twenty-seven car loads of hogs. In Louisiana, three years ago, the farmers were buying corn. Last year in addition to supplying the corn needed at home they were able to sell 50,000,000 bushels in the open market. When I visited Texas in 1905 Dr. Houston, then president of the State Agricultural College, said "There are two universities in Texas: the university at Austin and Dr. Knapp." This remark represents the sentiment of the people of Texas toward Dr. Knapp, and it is received with applause throughout the South when repeated.

THE WORK EXTENDED TO OTHER STATES

In 1905 the present chairman of the General Education Board, Mr. Frederick T. Gates, was traveling in the South on one of Mr. Robert C. Ogden's special trains. He remarked: "There is abundant knowledge of the science of agriculture; if these people could have that knowledge in some practical form there would be no limit to the output of Southern agriculture." He asked the secretary of the board to make a general study of how best to deliver the knowledge of agricultural science to present farmers. In the course of that study we learned of Dr. Knapp and his success in helping present farmers. Dr. Knapp came to Washington for a conference. The question was asked: "Why cannot your method, so successful in boll weevil States, be introduced in all the States of the South?" The answer was: "Federal money cannot be used except to fight an interstate evil, like the boll weevil, for example."

After conference with Secretary Wilson and Dr. Knapp, the General Education Board made a small contribution for the extension of this work into the State of Mississippi. This was in 1906. In 1907 the work was extended to Alabama and to Virginia; the latter State presenting conditions radically different from those existing in the cotton-growing sections. So successful was this work of demonstration farms that in the following year the General Education Board supplied funds for the extension of the work to all the Southern States. From this time forth Dr. Knapp became the apostle of agriculture in the Southern States. He traveled almost constantly; he addressed members of the Legislature, agricultural colleges, meetings of bankers and business men and groups of practical farmers. He not only taught them how to raise cotton and corn, but he taught the farmer how to find out the cost of his crop and whether he was making or losing money. He said: "Agriculture may be divided into eight parts, one-eighth is science, three-eighths is art and four-eighths is business management." He discussed the economics of the situation with merchants and bankers, showing them that if the farmer would first make his living on the farm, and then raise stock and make crops of cotton and corn which would bring him in money, he would be able to purchase not the bare necessities of life, as heretofore, but the things that make for comfort and even luxury. In this way he secured the hearty assistance of merchants and bankers in the coöperative demonstration farm work and began a pervasive movement for economic and social betterment. Dr. Knapp associated with him as State, county, and local supervisors many men of insight and power, but he was the inspiring and controlling spirit of them all.

BOYS' CORN CLUBS

In the course of his work he found that boys were interested,—school boys from ten to eighteen years of age. With the coöperation of State and county superintendents of education he organized these boys into corn clubs. The story of this movement is so well known that details are not called for. It is estimated that this year 100,000 boys will be engaged in corn-growing contests throughout the Southern States. This work is important from the standpoint of economics, but its greatest significance is in the interesting of boys in practical farming and the awakening in them of a desire for a wider and bet-

ter knowledge of agricultural science and the methods of its application.

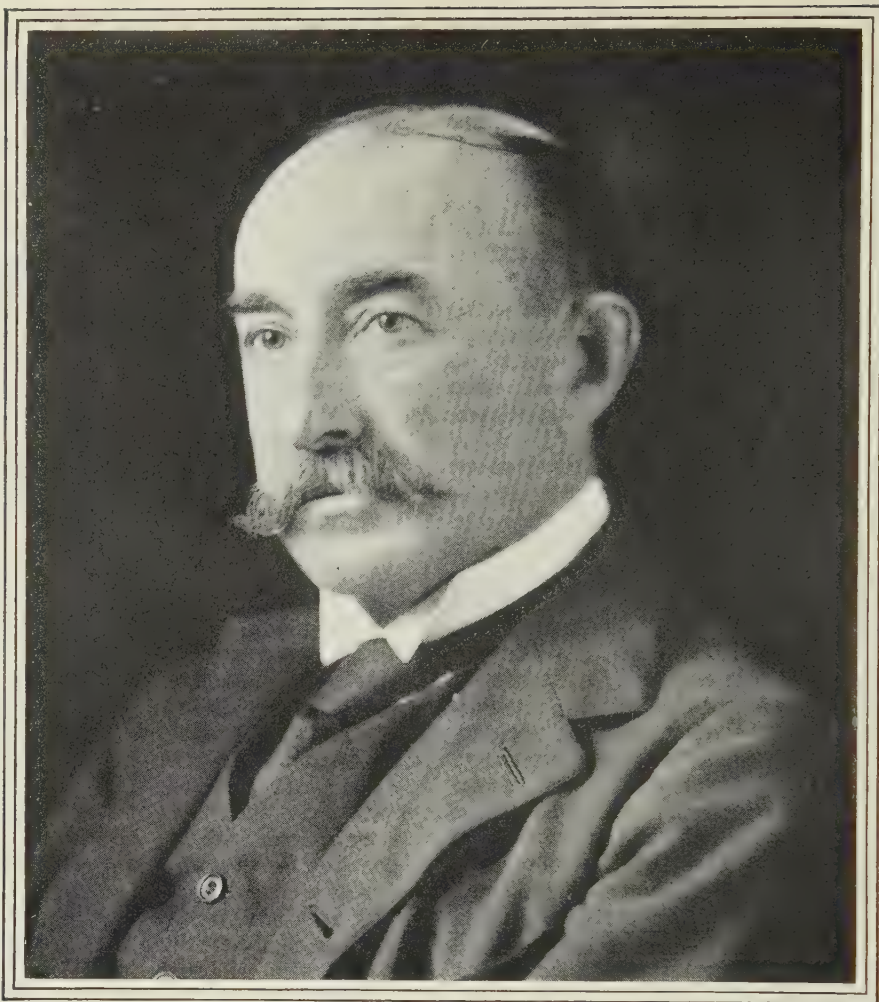
GIRLS' CANNING AND POULTRY CLUBS

Dr. Knapp was a man of vision and of imagination. The success of one form of work gave him a pinnacle of outlook from which he saw other forms of successful endeavor. Something must be done, he said, to interest the girls and to bring about the economic independence of the women of the farm. During the last year of his life he organized Canning and Poultry Clubs for Girls, and on the occasion of his last visit to New York he arranged with the General Education Board for a large appropriation to extend this work to all the States of the South.

THE WORK TO BE CONTINUED

"Will the work be continued now that Dr. Knapp has gone from us?" people are asking. Emphatically, yes. Dr. Knapp believed in organization, and the chief glory of all that he did is the fact that he so organized his work that it can be and must be continued. His son, Mr. Bradford Knapp, has been appointed his successor. For some time he was associated with his father in special preparation for this important responsibility. The entire organization, district, State, county, and local, is so efficient and its parts are so thoroughly coördinated that there can be no question of the continued success of this valuable work.

One could not be long in Dr. Knapp's company without appreciation of his intellectual greatness, his moral earnestness, his abounding common sense, his imagination and vision, his knowledge of men, his breadth of view combined with a grasp of the simplest details, the practicability of his methods, and why he gained the confidence of the common man and became his leader into new hopes and new achievements. He was a great man and had the simplicity of character and tenderness of spirit and wealth of sympathy which belong to greatness when in its highest estate. He gained the confidence and secured the following of statesmen in their counsels. His addresses were listened to by great companies of horny-handed men called from their toil. He could counsel with groups of experts who were seeking new methods. He could win the love and secure the following of the simplest child in the home. He loved his fellow men. There was no cant about him. He lived above trifles. Work was his pleasure.



JOHN HAYS HAMMOND, WHO WILL REPRESENT THE UNITED STATES AT THE
CORONATION OF KING GEORGE

OUR SPECIAL AMBASSADOR AT THE CORONATION

THE American people have always been represented in England by men eminently typical of the qualities of which we, as a nation, are most proud. Pinckney King, Monroe, Adams, Irving, Everett, Bancroft, Motley, Lowell, Phelps, Bayard, Hay, Choate, Reid,—it is an eminent list of scholars, diplomats and men of affairs, who have always been more than persona grata at the British capital. They have been general favorites. Our present Ambassador, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, like his immediate predecessor, the Hon. Joseph H. Choate, was one of the most popular men in London. Mr.

Reid's private means and intellectual eminence would make him a notable public man anywhere. The taste and elegance that mark the official residence of the American Ambassador, and the hospitality of the life at the Embassy in London must be placed to the credit of Mr. Reid's private fortune. His home government scarcely returns him the amount of his annual rent.

When, on the twenty-second of the present month, George V is crowned King of Great Britain and Ireland, the United States Government will be represented by another man who stands for real Americanism, one of the most

successful of living American business men, and probably the best known and most highly paid mining engineer in the world, Mr. John Hays Hammond. Mr. Hammond, who is now in his fifty-seventh year, is known in three continents for his engineering achievements. He is a Yale graduate, and a close friend of President Taft. In 1893 he became consulting engineer for Barnato Brothers, the South African promoters, and later for Cecil Rhodes, the British Empire builder, one of whose strongest and most enthusiastic supporters he soon became. He was consulting engineer of the Consolidated Gold Fields of South Africa, and of the British South African Company, and one of the four leaders in the reform movement in the Transvaal in 1895 and 1896. For his participation in the famous Jameson raid he was arrested and sentenced to death, and later to imprisonment, which sentence was finally suspended altogether on payment of a heavy fine. Mr. Hammond has lectured extensively at all the great American universities, and has contributed to scientific magazines all over the world. Three years ago he was prominently mentioned as Republican Vice-Presidential candidate. More than once has the President



DORCHESTER HOUSE, LONDON, THE HOME OF AMBASSADOR REID

tried to make him accept public office, but he has refused a place in the cabinet and several big foreign missions. He accepted the special ambassadorship to the coronation, he has said, "only because of its temporary nature, his chief business being the bridling of rivers, the melting of metal, and the making of fun for his friends." The two most noteworthy things about Mr. Hammond are his large, vigorous personality and his clever, helpful wife. Hammond is, in every sense of the word, an American who has achieved. Beginning life with a good education and plenty of courage,—and nothing else,—he fell into the company of energetic men, and was keyed up to do

his best. He has worked in every part of the world; he has found and developed oil wells, he owns, and has developed, water-power sites, and, in general, has taken many fortunes out of the ground for himself and others. He is a type of man that builds up new countries. Like Cecil Rhodes, and so many other characters of whom Britain herself is proud, it is quite fitting that he should represent the United States Government and the American people at the coronation of King George. While in London, during the coronation festivities, he and his wife will be the guests of the Burdett-Coutts. We show the mansion of this English family on this page.



THE BURDETT-COUTTS HOME IN LONDON

(Where our Special Ambassador, Mr. John Hays Hammond, will be a guest during the Coronation festivities)

THE AMERICAN EMBASSY IN BERLIN

UNDER DR. HILL

THE recent resignation of Dr. David Jayne Hill as our Ambassador to Germany, and the reported intention of President Taft to appoint, as his successor, some millionaire social leader, have recalled the attention of the American people not only to the circumstances under which Dr. Hill went to Berlin, more than three years ago, but to his eminent success as the American representative, his acceptability to the German people, and his good

When Dr. Hill went to Berlin, he was most cordially received by the Emperor, despite pessimistic forecasts of a number of his countrymen that he was to be embarrassed at the German capital by the fact that he was not a wealthy man like his predecessor. While not a poor man and not at all dependent upon his salary, Dr. Hill, nevertheless, found that his first duty, on arriving at his post, was not to become acquainted with the duties of his post, but to go house-hunting. He could not be expected to spend a fraction of what his predecessor had been easily able to do toward making the home of the American legation in Berlin, a center of elegance and the resort of the titled and wealthy. It has been no credit to the United States Government or to the American people that Dr. Hill did succeed,—with the help of his good wife, and long, patient, discriminating search—in finding quarters which have, for the past three years, proven a proper, dignified and elegant center for American life at the German capital. We reproduce here some views of the residence occupied by the Hills. It was a private house which Dr. Hill was fortunate enough to be able to lease.



THE AMERICAN EMBASSY IN BERLIN DURING DR. HILL'S INCUMBENCY

fortune in securing a fitting, dignified, and elegant headquarters for the Embassy at the German capital. The Hon. Charlemagne Tower—who, it will be remembered, preceded Dr. Hill as American Ambassador at the German court—was possessed of ample means. He and Mrs. Tower were able, through the charm of their own personalities, backed up by their wealth, to make the American Embassy at Berlin a very attractive social center. The Towers were very popular with the German Emperor, and when it was known that they were to leave his capital, the Kaiser permitted some discreet, private suggestions to be made public to the general effect that the United States might lose its relatively brilliant and leading place in the diplomatic life of Berlin, unless Mr. Tower were succeeded by some one fully able to continue his generous expenditure of wealth. When Dr. Hill was selected by President Roosevelt to succeed Mr. Tower, the country at once, with no difference of opinion, commended the choice because of its eminent fitness.

Dr. Hill is a man of sound scholarship, keen knowledge of men, and a good deal of administrative efficiency. He has been president of two universities and he has organized a school of diplomacy at Washington. In 1898 he was first Assistant Secretary of State. Five years later he became United States Minister to Switzerland, where he remained for two years, being then transferred to the Netherlands. In June, 1907, while still American Minister at the Dutch capital, he was appointed one of the American delegates to the second Hague Conference. In April, 1908, he was chosen for the Berlin mission. One of the fruits of his residence in Europe is an elaborate "History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe," six volumes of which have already appeared, and which has given its author international prestige. He is also the author of a number of other works on international law and politics.



DR. HILL AT HIS DESK IN THE LIBRARY AT THE EMBASSY



THE LARGER SALON IN THE EMBASSY AT BERLIN

PERMANENT HOUSING FOR DIPLOMATS

WASHINGTON has an increasing number of handsome buildings owned by foreign governments devoted to the residence and official use of their representatives in this capital to be spokesman for the French Government and people, neither of them was compelled to hunt to find a house. They followed their predecessors into well-appointed Embassies without hitch or embarrassment of any sort. Up to the present time almost exactly the contrary has been the experience of American representatives abroad.



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THE ITALIAN EMBASSY IN WASHINGTON

country. Some of the more striking of these we present in the illustrations on this and the following pages. Every one knows where to find the British, French or German Ambassadors, no matter what their names may be. No one has ever had the slightest occasion to inquire whether these representatives of the great European nations have large private means or small. In Washington, as in London, Paris, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Rome and other great capitals of the world, there is always an appropriate, permanent embassy of these nations, with suitable salaries for the Ambassador or Minister, and proper allowance for its maintenance. When Mr. Bryce came to be British Ambassador at Washington, or Dr. Jusserand came to the Ameri-

the present, this might have been the reply, under similar circumstances, made by any American representative abroad. Up to the time of the passage of the Lowden



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THE DUTCH LEGATION IN WASHINGTON



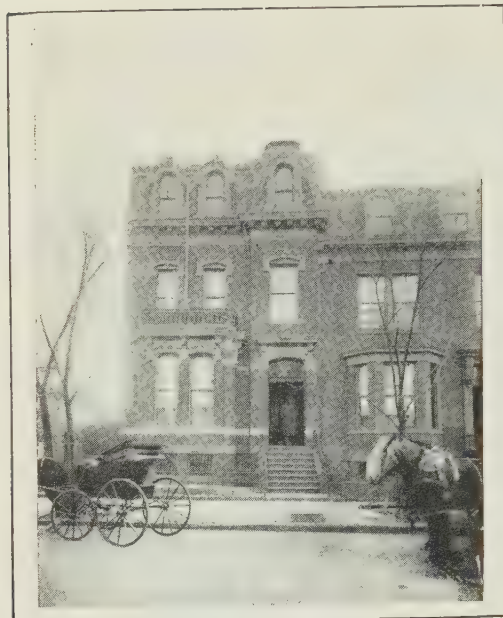
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THE BRITISH EMBASSY IN WASHINGTON



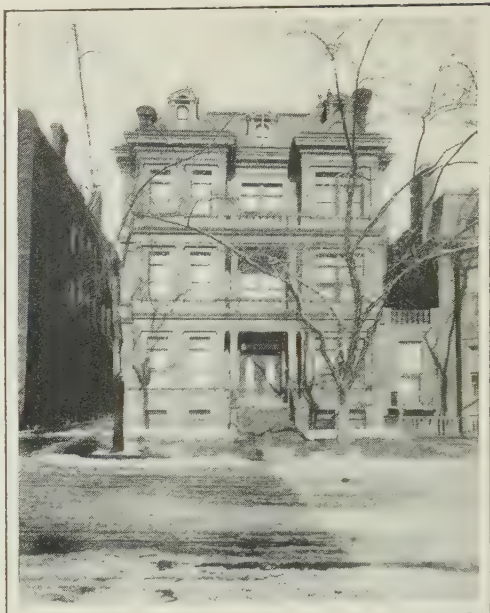
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THE EMBASSY OF MEXICO IN WASHINGTON

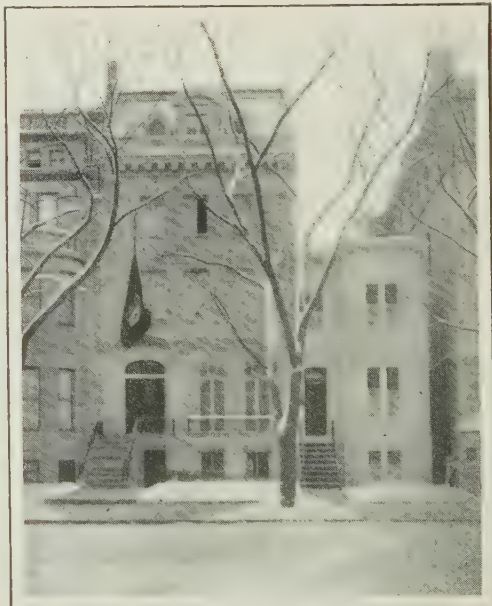
bill, on February 25, no provision was made for the housing of our embassies or legations abroad. For many years there had been persistent pressure brought to bear upon Congress to make appropriation for permanent and suitable buildings for the use of our Ambassadors in the capitals to which they are accredited. There was no standard, whether

public or private, upon which an American Minister or Ambassador in a foreign capital might base his expenditures. Dr. Hill's success in Berlin in getting acceptably situated, to which we have already referred, could not be taken as an indication of what his successors might be able to achieve. No fixed standard for life and residence having



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THE EMBASSY OF FRANCE IN WASHINGTON



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THE LEGATION OF SPAIN IN WASHINGTON

been set up for our Ministers abroad, they have heretofore had to be governed by their own circumstances and their own sense of fitness. These circumstances often determined whether the American Ambassador should reside in a palace, which it might cost a fortune to maintain, or should occupy several rooms in a hotel, and pay for all his expenses out of his meager salary. If he happened to be a wealthy man, he was likely to pay out of his own money freely that he might live as the representatives of other great nations in the same capital. There was no possibility of his living within the salary allowed him by Congress.

National dignity and self-respect requires that proper provision be made for our representatives abroad, so that they might live in accordance with the standard already set up by the representatives of other nations, and so that a poor man might follow a rich man, or the reverse, without occasioning any adverse comment. This reform has now been accomplished by the passage of the Lowden bill, which will, in time, result in our Government owning a residence in every country to which it sends Ambassadors, one that will compare favorably with those of other nations, one to which American citizens can point with pride, and to which they may go feeling that they have citizen's rights therein.

The passage of the Lowden bill accomplishes something for which diplomats have been striving ever since, more than sixty years ago, Abbott Lawrence was our Minister to the Court of St. James, and William C. Rives our Minister to Paris. Many of the most eminent names in our diplomatic service abroad have been identified with the effort to obtain this reform, among them some of the wealthiest of our Ambassadors, including Joseph Choate, Henry White and General Horace Porter. For several years Representative Nicholas Longworth made constant appeals to Congress to start the new order by purchasing an embassy building in Paris, but his plea fell on deaf ears. Early in the spring of 1909 a New York banker, Mr. E. Clarence Jones, became deeply interested in the idea. His interest resulted in the formation, during that year, of the American Embassy Association, made up of eminent Americans widely known for their public-spirited activities in many directions. A vigorous and persistent campaign was conducted by this organization. Finally Congressman Frank O. Lowden, of Illinois, became interested in the subject. He agreed



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THE EMBASSY OF RUSSIA IN WASHINGTON

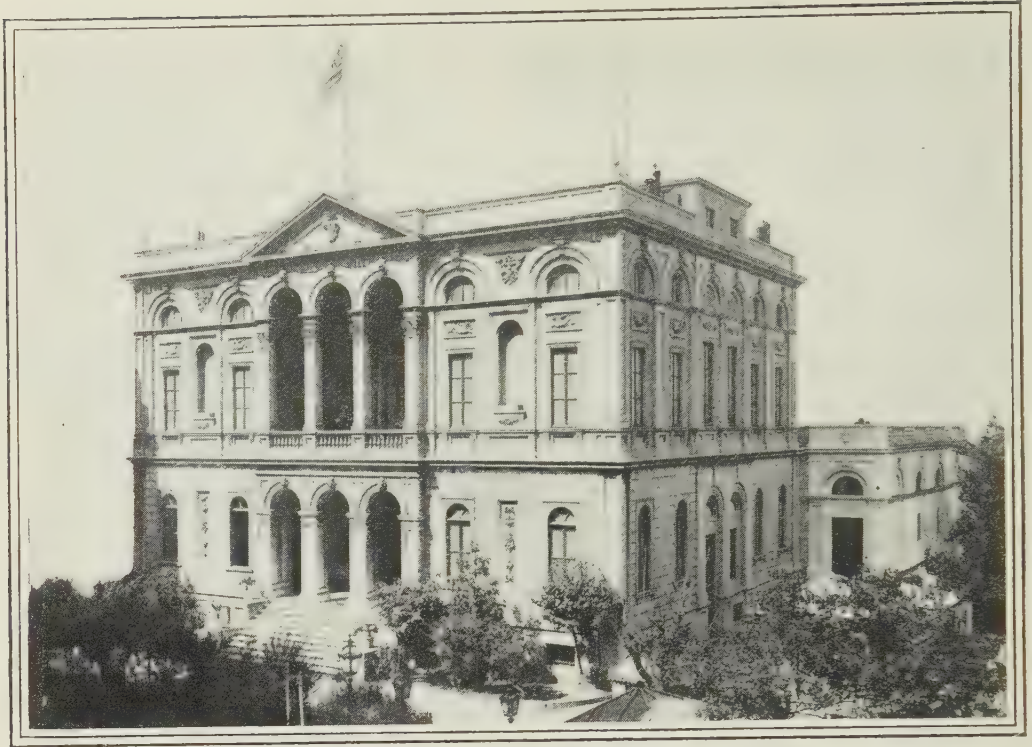
to introduce the necessary bill into the Sixty-first Congress. It was defeated by a large majority. The Embassy Association redoubled its efforts. With the watchword: "American embassies, legations and consulates mean better foreign business," a widespread propaganda was started, and Congressman Lowden again introduced the bill into the House on January 9. It was passed by both houses and became a law a week before the final adjournment of Congress.

The measure authorizes the Secretary of State to acquire in foreign countries

such sites and buildings as may be appropriated for by Congress for the use of the diplomatic and consular establishments of the United States and to alter, repair and furnish the said buildings; suitable buildings for this purpose to be either purchased or erected as to the Secretary of State may seem best, and all buildings so acquired for the diplomatic service shall be used both as the residences of diplomatic officials and for the offices of the diplomatic establishments.

The proviso is made that not more than \$500,000 shall be expended in any fiscal year.

Before the enactment of the Lowden bill into law, the only diplomatic residences abroad owned by the United States Government were at Constantinople, Peking, Tokyo, and Bangkok. Those at the Turkish and Chinese capitals we show on the next page. The only consular buildings owned by the United States are at Amoy, China; Seoul, Korea; Tahiti in the South Seas; Tangiers in Morocco; and Yokohama, Japan. The provisions of the Lowden act will, in time, result in providing for all our Ambassadors



THE AMERICAN DIPLOMATIC BUILDING IN CONSTANTINOPLE
(The most creditable and dignified of our nation-owned buildings abroad)

and representatives abroad, no matter what citizens may feel at liberty to come and go, their means, the same permanent home supplied by the government, where American diplomatic headquarters of other nations.



THE AMERICAN EMBASSY IN PEKING
(A dignified, impressive structure "worthy of the American people")

CANADA'S TARIFF POLICY, — THE OLD EAST VERSUS THE NEW WEST

BY ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE

(Formerly United States Senator from Indiana)

FOR the first time in sixteen years the opposition in Canada is showing vitality. When in 1896, under the brilliant and daring leadership of Laurier, the Liberal party overthrew the then existing government of the Conservative party, the latter became, of course, the opposition. And from that day until the present year, it has been innocuous in its weakness. But to-day it is displaying plan, activity and determination.

Indeed there are those who assert that Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal party may be facing a crisis. The cause of this unexpected development is the reciprocity agreement now before the Canadian Parliament and the American Congress. For back of these portentous signs is that final effort to begin a policy of freer trade between these neighbor and brother countries.

Everybody expected that reciprocity would have smooth sailing through the Canadian Parliament. For was not reciprocity the historic desire of the Canadian people? Was it not the traditional policy of the Dominion? Had it not been proclaimed and promised by both parties in their platforms and the campaign speeches of their leaders before every critical and decisive election?

Also there is Canada's system of party government under which the party in power can enact into law almost anything it chooses; and in Canada, under modern conditions, the longer a party is in power, the greater its resources, the more disciplined its membership and the harder it is to dislodge.

Then, too, taken in connection with all these favorable elements, the success of reciprocity seemed to be doubly assured because its champion is that masterful leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Canadian Premier. All who are familiar with Canada know of the extraordinary influence of this remarkable man.

In ability and experience, in popularity and courage, in the combined qualities of real leadership, he has not his equal from Halifax to Victoria. His personality literally dominates the whole Dominion. And he is so be-

loved and trusted by the Canadian people that Sir Wilfrid Laurier almost may be called a Canadian institution.

Nevertheless, reciprocity is not having an easy journey. It is meeting with prolonged opposition—an opposition which, in its extended, organized and determined obstinacy, bids fair to become notable in Canada's political chronicles.

What, then, is the cause of this? The roots of that cause run far back in Canada's history—back even to French and English colonial rule. But to get it clearly, perhaps we had better deal with its more recent and visible origins.

Briefly, then, while Great Britain still retained her rigid protective system, she gave heavy tariff preferences to Canada's raw material, such, for example, as lumber. But when in 1846 she suddenly adopted free trade, Canada found herself shorn of these preferences and yet barred from the markets of the American Republic by our tariff, which, even then, was high. To get those markets she almost was ready for annexation. But annexation was not feasible; there was no way to get our markets; and so Canada began to put up a tariff wall of her own.

Then came the Elgin-Marcy Reciprocity Treaty of 1854. This was of great mutual advantage to both countries until our Civil War broke out. During this conflict our production was diminished. We could export little; we needed to import much. Therefore the balance of trade under this Reciprocity Treaty turned against us.

Also Canada during the life of this treaty steadily raised her tariff on articles which the treaty did not include, particularly on manufactured articles.

For this reason and because of our irritation at certain unfortunate happenings during our Civil War, we abrogated this Reciprocity Treaty in 1866.

In 1867 was formed the Dominion of Canada, as we know it to-day. The present Canadian nation came into being. At the head of it was that able, resourceful and highly "practical" statesman, Sir John A.

Macdonald. He was a careful student of our methods. To him is due those profoundly important portions of the Canadian Constitution which make it distinctly national; and in this fact abides whatever glory history will accord him.

GROWTH OF CANADIAN PROTECTIONISM

For years and almost decades before this event the protectionist sentiment had been growing in Canada, caused almost entirely by Canada's experience with the United Kingdom. Manufacturing industries already had begun to appear here and there on her wintry soil. She found herself shut off from the Republic by our war tariff; and she found herself practically open to free British imports. Almost literally it seemed that her people were compelled to sell in the cheapest and buy in the dearest markets.

But, whatever the causes, Sir John Macdonald announced what he called the "national policy" for Canada. His dream was of Canada as an independent industrial and economic nation. This "national policy" was nothing more than high protection. Macdonald prevailed. The policy was adopted. High protection was enacted into law.

Meanwhile, even under the former Canadian tariffs, manufacturing industries were increasing. These all rallied around the national policy. Macdonald adopted the rule of John Sherman; and, in making the first Canadian tariff under the present Dominion government, he called in the manufacturers, or anybody else who wanted a high duty, asked them how much they wanted, and gave it to them.

Yet it is worth our thinking about that even under these circumstances, when the Canadian tariff beneficiaries were given whatever they asked for, the Canadian tariff was made less than two-thirds on the average what our American tariff to-day is on the average.

Under the "national policy" tariffs, a new order of things appeared in Canada. The protected industries had a hothouse growth. Then to the aid of a protective tariff was added the assistance of direct bounties paid out of the treasury of the national Government to certain favored industries. All these recipients of tariff and bounty aid banded together to "protect their interests."

Thus appeared in Canada the same combined financial and political forces that during the like period developed so powerfully in the United States.

Except for a brief period that has nothing to do with Canada's tariff question, the Liberal party was in the minority and therefore was "the opposition" until 1896. It attacked with ever-increasing vigor the "national policy" of protection. This culminated in the famous Liberal convention at Ottawa in 1893, which adopted an historic platform declaring for ultimate free trade with the world and immediate reciprocity with the United States.

THE LIBERALS FOR FREER TRADE—

The Liberals assailed the party in power as having been insincere in its promises to secure reciprocity—for it is important to remember that up to the present time reciprocity has been a part of the creed of both parties in Canada.

Three or four pilgrimages to Washington have been made by representatives of the Canadian Government under both parties, always until now without success. Of this issue of ultimate free trade with the world and immediate reciprocity with the United States, Laurier became the soul and personification. So fierce were his assaults on the "national policy," so thrillingly eloquent his appeals to the Canadian people, that to this day Laurier's campaign is spoken of as the most stirring and effective ever made in the history of the Dominion.

In his great oration at the Liberal convention of 1893 he exclaimed:

I call upon you one and all to pronounce at once and give your emphatic support to the proposition that we shall never rest until we have wiped away from our system that fraud and robbery [protection] under which Canadians suffer. . . . Our policy should be the policy of free trade such as they have in England. . . . The circumstances of the country cannot admit at the present of that policy in its entirety; but from this day henceforward it should be the goal to which we aspire. . . . From this moment we have a distinct issue with the party in power; their idea is protection, our idea is free trade.

When the campaign came on Sir Wilfrid Laurier made speeches all over the Dominion of which the following from his fervid appeal at Winnipeg is an example. Speaking there to the farmers of Manitoba, he said:

We stand for freedom. I denounce the policy of protection as bondage—yea, bondage; I refer to bondage in the same manner in which American slavery was bondage. . . . In the same manner people of Canada, the inhabitants of the city of Winnipeg especially, are toiling for a master who takes . . . away a very large percentage of your earnings for which you sweat and toil.

Throughout all this really wonderful campaign the general issue was free trade versus protection; and the special issue was reciprocity with the United States. And on these two issues the Liberal party won; the government by the Conservative party was overthrown; it became the opposition; and the Liberal party, with Laurier at its head, became "the government" of Canada.

—BUT PROTECTIONISTS IN OFFICE

But when the Liberal party came to revise the tariff it found that it could reduce it very little. So considerable by this time had become the protected interests that their pleas had to be heeded. They showed to the government that if the Canadian tariff, even then much lower than the American tariff, was still further reduced or wiped out altogether, they would be seriously injured if indeed not entirely destroyed.

"For," said they, "even as it is, American manufacturers can get into the Canadian market far more easily than we can get into the American market; they are older, richer, better organized, more powerful than we. If you cut down or destroy our tariff, we are helpless before them."

The upshot of the matter was that the protective tariff, to reduce and finally abolish which the Liberal party had made successful war, was not appreciably interfered with; and the Canadian tariff to-day, after sixteen years of Liberal rule, is practically as high as when this tariff reform party came into power on the issue of ultimate free trade with the world and immediate reciprocity with the United States.

More than this, the payment of bounties almost may be said to have grown into a system. There are bounties on binding twine and steel rods, bounties on petroleum and fish, bounties on this and that.

Even the patent laws were changed so that, unless the article produced under the patent is made in Canada, the patent is revoked.

Thus it is that the Liberal party is said to have abandoned the issue which gave it political life. It frankly adopted protection. In all justice it should be said that it is hard to see how it could have done anything else. So that in Canada to-day both parties are protectionist parties. Protection is the traditional policy of the party in opposition and the adopted policy of the party in power.

But reciprocity with the United States is the traditional policy of both parties and now is offered as the affirmative policy of

the Liberal party. It is that party's last effort to carry out one important platform and campaign pledge by which it came into power.

INTERESTS OPPOSING RECIPROCITY

But the associated Canadian interests which have grown up under Canada's moderate protective tariff are opposed to reciprocity with something of the fierceness with which they are hostile to free trade itself. And these interests are very powerful. Their organized effectiveness in politics has grown even more rapidly than their financial strength. It is said that the combination of industrial capital in Canada is even more perfect than in the United States.

Then, too, as every one knows, Canada's banking system and custom have woven Canadian banks into the structure of Canadian business, and Canadian business into the structure of Canadian banks until their co-operation is perhaps more perfect than in any other country. Elsewhere I have described with minuteness and care the peculiar interdependence of Canadian financial and industrial institutions. Almost in a legal sense, it may be said that every Canadian bank is a silent partner in the business of its borrowing customers.

The Canadian railroads, which, as I have elsewhere shown, are almost entirely three vast systems, traverse the Dominion east and west from ocean to ocean. It is only natural that they do not want their business diverted southward.

"Why," said an opponent of reciprocity, "if reciprocity passes, the great and ever-swelling volume of grain now produced and to be ever increasingly produced in our enormous prairie provinces, will begin to pour southward into and through the United States. I should not be surprised if at this moment there are at least two American railways waiting at the border to throw their right-of-way men and construction gangs into Canada's unrivaled garden."

It is said that the entire industrial, financial and transportation interests of Canada at heart are against reciprocity with the United States. The banks, of course, are saying nothing—they are absolutely silent. The railroads also are quiet—although the master railroad mind of the Dominion, Sir William Van Horne, of the Canadian Pacific, made a public speech against reciprocity very soon after this now famous agreement was announced.

And while Sir William Van Horne has retired from the presidency of the great and efficient organization, and while its now president, Sir Thomas G. Shaughnessy, at once made a public statement that Sir William Van Horne's speech was not to be taken as the expression of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, yet no man in Canada doubts that the latter expressed the unspoken and unacted sentiment and feeling of the railway interests of the Dominion.

But the manufacturing, mining and other like interests are neither quiet nor restrained. They are bold, outspoken, aggressively militant, ceaselessly active.

Of these, many, if not most, who heretofore have supported the Liberal government, and particularly Sir Wilfrid Laurier, have turned against both. A powerful delegation of men formally called upon the Premier and presented their remonstrances—and these men were as able and of as high standing as can be found in any country.

But they did not stop with their protest to the government. They have gone to the people. They are flooding Canada with clever arguments well stated. Through their influence or persuasion influential newspapers are fighting the government which last year they were supporting.

And back of this numerous, fearless and resourceful army of manufacturing, mining and other like interests, is the silent but solid sympathy of the banking and transportation interests. From the practical point of view this means very much in Canadian policy.

For in the Dominion, as in the Republic, political campaigns require a golden hand as well as a silver tongue. Campaign funds flow into the war chests of Canadian political parties from every source from which our American political parties have derived financial assistance either now or at any time in the past.

The most startling example of this was a single contribution of \$350,000 made to Sir John Macdonald's campaign fund by the president of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company in 1872. Another illustration is the campaign contributions which it is said, and not denied, are made by those who sell supplies to the Great Inter-Colonial Railway which is owned and operated by the government—and that means by the party in power.

But, of course, as in every country, the best sources of campaign contributions are the great financial interests which may be affected by national legislation and policies. In Canada these are against reciprocity.

Heretofore if these interests have not been supporters of the party in power, they at least have not opposed it. Indeed, many well informed men, themselves members of the party in power, declare, and I have not heard it denied, that the great business interests of Canada have for sixteen years supported the Liberal party as stanchly as they formerly supported the protectionist party, which was in power until the Liberal party overthrew it in 1896.

At all events, it seems certain that during these sixteen years the opposition has been wandering in a financial and political wilderness without an issue, without campaign funds from its old-time sources of supply, without a flake of golden manna falling from the skies.

But now at last the opposition has an issue. The signs portend also that there is once more the promise if, indeed, not the presence of that financial commissariat which their politically starving troops so long have needed. Before them at last appears the land of the politicians' hearts' desire flowing with political milk and honey.

And so it is that in fighting for reciprocity the present government in Canada may find itself fighting for its life. Why, then, did the Canadian Government take this step?

REASONS FOR LAURIER'S ADVOCACY

"Sir Wilfrid Laurier is the most sagacious statesman Canada has yet produced," said one of his devoted followers. "He had everything his own way. The opposition was so puny and ineffective as to be contemptible. There was not even the faintest suggestion of any rivalry to Sir Wilfrid Laurier, not only as the leader of his party, but as the supreme leader and head of the Canadian nation. There is no person in Canada who compares with him, not only as a statesman and a humanist, but as a far-seeing, resourceful politician. It is hard to understand why he ever hazarded this unnecessary adventure."

"But," said another, who I think looked more deeply into the heart of the great Canadian Premier, "he did it just because the statesman and the humanist in Sir Wilfrid Laurier is greater than the politician in him. He did it, too, because he is a man of elemental honor and before his career closes he wanted to redeem at least one of the great campaign promises to the people which was the lever that lifted him to his commanding position."

This latter opinion is undoubtedly the true one. Sir Wilfrid Laurier now has reached the biblical span of human life; and yet is as strong and virile as a man of fifty. But in the course of nature whatever he has to do as the crowning act of his wonderful career must be undertaken soon. If ever he meant to strike, this is the time.

Beloved by the whole people, his genius conceded even by his enemies, the first personage among the public men of the British Empire, made the autocrat of his party without his asking by his fervent party followers solely because of his great combination of qualities; and in addition to all this strengthened by Canada's political party system, Sir Wilfrid Laurier might well have concluded that he easily could stamp with the seal of a permanent renown his years of active service by enacting into law freer trade relations between the Canadian and the American people.

While Sir Wilfrid Laurier is a superb politician, as his career proves, yet he is more of a statesman than he is a politician; more of a humanist than either. His ideal is our own Lincoln. There is much of the dreamer in the make-up of this uncommon man and no unprejudiced person can doubt that Laurier's dreams are, broadly speaking, of the welfare of his fellow man. The consensus of opinion is that, within the scope of his place and opportunity, Laurier thinks that this great end can be advanced, so far as his own efforts are concerned, by beginning closer trade and social relations between the Canadian and American people, who in everything else are so near akin.

Then, in his heart, one cannot help feeling that Sir Wilfrid Laurier always has chafed at his powerlessness to redeem either of the two great fundamental campaign pledges he and his party made to the people sixteen years ago.

And so he was justified in thinking that now was the time to redeem one of them; now the time to put the hand of the brother nation into that of the other. Those who know the scope of Laurier's thought believe that this was the lofty conception in Laurier's mind to realize which he believed reciprocity a beginning.

Humanity and statesmanship always face those banded interests of greed which think much of the present and little of the future, all of themselves and little of mankind. And it is just this which confronts reciprocity in Canada.

The opposition is aided, too, by a senti-

ment which runs back to the unhappy period when our States, in the unwisdom of their newly won independence, confiscated the property of the Loyalists and expelled them from our country. Practically all of these Loyalists—and there were scores of thousands of them all told—went to Canada. They were among the strongest characters in the American colonies. The confiscation of their property and their expulsion from their homes caused the bitterness which we can understand if we will imagine ourselves in a like case.

THE OLD "LOYALIST" FEELING

This resentment has been cherished from father to son and mother to daughter to the present hour. The descendants of the Loyalists in Canada constitute a small but able and determined company of people scattered all over the Dominion. And almost every one of them is against reciprocity because of this inherited antagonism to the United States and this ancient loyalty to all things British which almost may be said to be a religion with them. Closer relations between Canada and the United States mean to them relations less close between Canada and England.

That this is illogical, unreasonable, unsound, untrue, means nothing to this otherwise most admirable element of Canadian people—for with them it is a matter of sentiment, inheritance and passion. But it is an influence in the present conflict. It is an injection of the element of idealism into an otherwise purely sordid and practical resistance to reciprocity—a fantastic, absurd idealism, if you will, but a genuine and earnest idealism nevertheless.

THE "ANNEXATION" BUGBEAR

It is this group of Canadian citizenship that takes first alarm at any suggestion of annexation. On Canada's walls the Canadian Imperialist is ever on guard, a vigilant sentry, scanning the horizon through the glasses of a nervous apprehension, discovering even in the harmless agent of commerce the disguised spy of political union with the American Republic.

Of course there is now no even remote possibility of these two peoples becoming one nation under a single flag, much as that event would make for the welfare of Canadians and Americans alike, happy as that circumstance would be for the glory of our race and the

peace progress of the world. But it is no longer a prospect—it is but a dim and vanishing memory. Yet if anything could call that memory back and make it a living force, it will be the prevention of closer trade and social relations between Canada and the United States. That Canadian who opposes reciprocity on the absurd ground of possible ultimate annexation to the United States is in reality the most effective force for annexation.

INFLUENCE OF THE WEST

For, as everybody knows, Fate has divided Canada into a western wing and an eastern wing by a vast and elemental decree of nature. In the eastern half of Canada are located all of the manufacturing and large mining activities of the Dominion. In that comparatively small section which includes the cities of Toronto and Montreal beats the financial, commercial and, speaking in the narrow sense, industrial heart of Canada.

The great distinctively farming and grain-producing regions of the Dominion are in what are called the "prairie provinces." This almost limitless agricultural region sweeps from Winnipeg to the foothills of the Rockies and from the American boundary north to the land of perpetual snows.

Between these two divisions of Canada, separating them by more than a thousand miles, stretches that waste of rock, water, morass and useless timber which has been the perplexity and the problem of Canadian engineers, thinkers and statesmen.

Into this western agricultural region are pouring by far the greater part of Canadian immigrants. Practically every one of the scores of thousands of American immigrants to Canada have gone there rather than to the eastern division, and will continue to go there in rapidly multiplying numbers. It is conceded that a very few years will give these "prairie provinces" a majority of the population of the Canadian nation.

And the people of these provinces need closer trade with the Republic from which most of them will have come. Already their social relations exclusively are with that portion of the United States which immediately adjoins them on the south. Their current

literature—magazines and the like—almost exclusively is American. A baseball game in Winnipeg never is between a Montreal and Winnipeg team, but with a team from St. Paul or Minneapolis.

When these western Canadians want a vacation or a visit they do not go fifteen hundred or two thousand miles to see their fellow Canadians in Ontario or Quebec or the Maritime Provinces. They merely step across the international boundary into Minnesota, Dakota or Montana.

The enrichment of the manufacturing and other interests fifteen hundred and two thousand miles east of them, is less than nothing to these western Canadians. This is true even of the pure-blooded Englishmen recently from the mother country.

"Why should we care for those Ontario manufacturers—we never see them? Why should we be taxed to make them rich?" said just such an Englishman who has made one of the "prairie provinces" his home, speaking to a fellow Canadian from one of the eastern provinces who was visiting this western region.

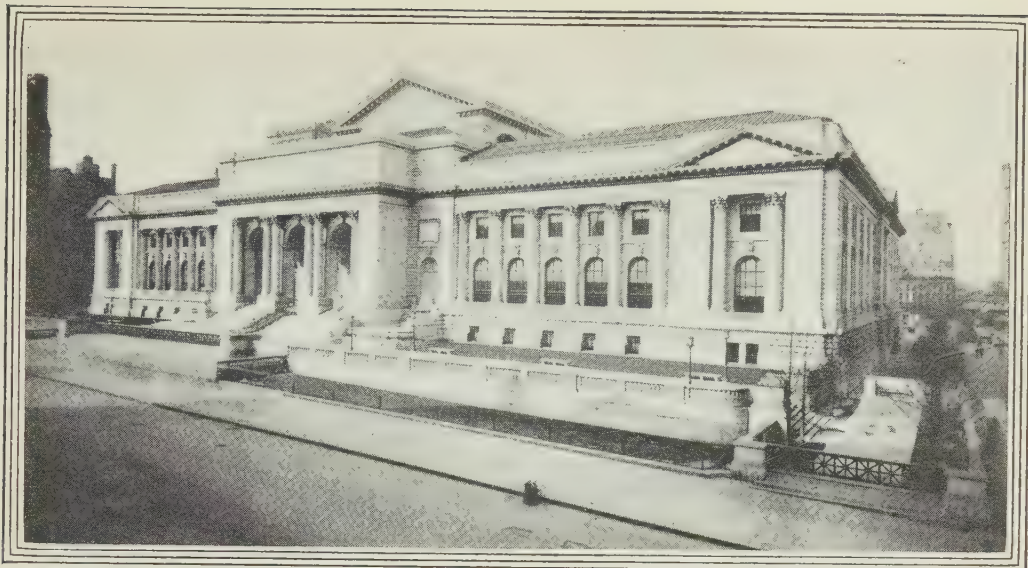
So if the banded powers of finance and sentiment should defeat reciprocity with the United States, it well may be that forces may beset in motion making for the very end which Canada as a nation wishes to avoid.

Thus the battle lines are drawn in Canada—one great wing of the Dominion earnestly for reciprocity, another as fervently against it. Party tradition is for it; peculiar local conditions against it. Humanity and citizenship for it; the financial interests and practical politics against it.

And this one final thing: whereas those in the geographical wing of Canada which is for reciprocity are comparatively unorganized, the interests in that wing of Canada which is against reciprocity are perfectly organized. In this situation all students of politics know what the outcome would be were it not for the party discipline which in Canada is more perfect than in any other country.

Yes, and this final human fact which may save the day in Canada for this policy—the courage, resourcefulness and amazing personality of Canada's grand old man who with his ripe and practised wisdom has ventured his accumulated career and political life on this hazard.





THE FIFTH AVENUE FRONT OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, BETWEEN FORTIETH AND FORTY-SECOND STREETS, NEW YORK CITY, OPENED ON MAY 23
(Carrère and Hastings, architects)

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

BY MONTROSE J. MOSES

NOW that the New York Public Library has been moved into sumptuous quarters representing the most modern of library conveniences, now that it has left behind it buildings representing old equipment and old methods, it is well to take an inventory of its history, of its growth, and of its contents. The marble home of the New York Public Library will house a larger institution than that which moved from the old Astor and Lenox sites, and being given room to expand, it will now have better opportunity to impress the public with the fact that it is the sixth or seventh library in the world as regards size.

The Astor Library was founded by John Jacob Astor, whose ambition was to give some such educational gift to the city. In 1854, therefore, after he had given \$150,000 for a building and \$250,000 for books, the library was formally opened. Astor's friend and adviser in this adventure was Dr. Joseph Green Cogswell, who was sent to Europe in the interest of the institution, and was made its first head. While all these negotiations were in progress, Astor's private secretary,—none other than Fitz-Greene Halleck,—together with Washington Irving, did much to further the enterprise; in fact, when the

first Board of Trustees was formed, Irving served as its president.

These two details alone would suggest the literary atmosphere which surrounded New York's reference library during the early years of its growth. Among the frequenters of the old Astor building were Longfellow, Hawthorne, Emerson, Willis, Motley, and Sumner, while up among the book-stacks, in alcoves reserved only for the most privileged of students, might be seen the familiar figures of Bancroft and Von Holst, in seats later occupied by Roosevelt and Mahan.

The library began with about 90,000 volumes, a large collection for that day. But while in 1854 it was considered modern, there was some dissatisfaction on the part of the local papers that so valuable a collection of books should be housed in a building so largely composed of wood, instead of iron.

In 1858 the work of supplying the public with books had so far increased as to make welcome the gift of a second building, \$250,000 being supplied by William B. Astor, who likewise made provision in his will for further purchases of books to the value of \$200,000. The third building, given by John Jacob Astor III, was erected in 1881. These three were not separate, but formed a unit.



THE OLD ASTOR LIBRARY, FOR MORE THAN HALF A CENTURY ONE OF NEW YORK'S LITERARY LANDMARKS (The removal of books and pamphlets from this ancient treasure-house to the new Fifth Avenue building was begun in April last)

But in the meantime New York life underwent a material alteration, and with the increase of the volumes in the library came a growth in the scope of literary work, coincident with a change in library methods.

But there were other forces beginning to be felt which suggested the possibilities of a larger public library for the city than that afforded by the Astor Foundation. In 1870 the Lenox Library was founded, and in 1886 Samuel J. Tilden, Presidential candidate in 1876, died, leaving in trust about four-fifths of his fortune for the erection of a free library and reading room for the people of New York. John Bigelow was president of this trust. The Tilden will was contested by relatives and after long litigation a compromise was reached by which \$2,000,000 was made available for library purposes.

In 1887 there was some talk of removing the historic City Hall from its present place in Park Row to a more central location, and Mr. Bigelow, who was already considering the site of the old reservoir on Forty-second Street as suitable for the Tilden memorial, offered to negotiate with the city for a combination of interests.

This was the foreshadowed outline of the present "New York Public Library: Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations," with Mr. Bigelow as president of the Board of Trustees.



A REAR VIEW OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

(The slitlike apertures admit light to the book-stacks)



THE MAIN READING ROOM OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

(This view shows less than half the room, which is nearly 300 feet long)

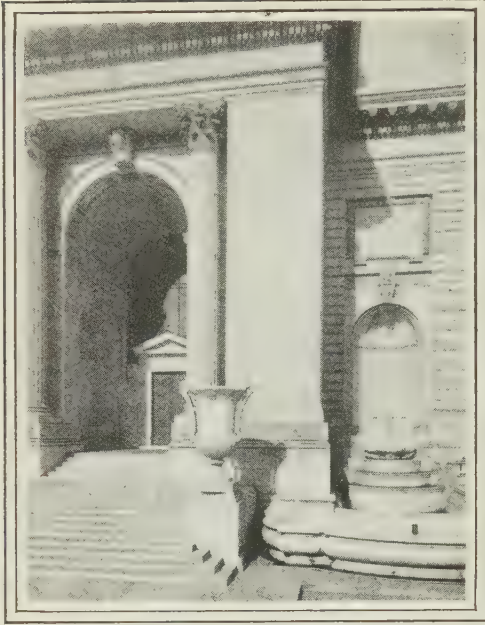
It is thus readily seen how naturally the public interest later called for a consolidation of those large library forces in New York—forces which would work to greater advantage under one head and under one roof. In 1895, therefore, the union of the three foundations was effected.

Two years thereafter the city agreed to give a site, stipulating that in the building there should be a circulating department, and that the public should be admitted in the evenings as well as on Sunday afternoons. After an open competition among architects, the plans submitted by Messrs. Carrère and Hastings were adopted and in 1899 the old reservoir, built of solid masonry as early as 1837, was demolished.

But the growth of the New York Public Library meant something more than the erection of a great building. With the increase in the reading public, there came a greater need for a circulating system, which would allow of the use of books outside of the library building. Both the Astor and the Lenox were reference libraries. Slowly there

developed throughout the city a number of independent collections which became public in so far as they were granted a slight appropriation from the State. The munificent gift of Andrew Carnegie's \$5,000,000, assured the erection of sixty branch library buildings, for which the city contributes sites and means of support.

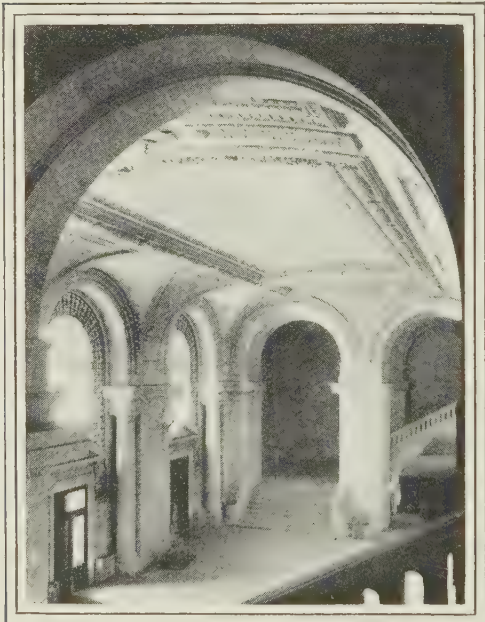
Thus, with the consolidation of the big reference libraries came a corresponding union of the circulating libraries in the city, which can boast, for the ending of the year 1910, of a total circulation of 7,506,976 volumes. In equipment, these libraries are thoroughly modern. Not only does each branch library contain a reference collection sufficiently adequate to meet average research, but the children's department has grown to such proportions that the circulation, in 1910, of children's books as a class set apart from the adult department, amounted to 2,645,708 volumes. Another significant phase of the circulation work is to be found in the system of traveling libraries,—a system that threads the city to the remotest



ENTRANCE DETAIL

points of the suburbs, supplying small collections of books to groups of people desiring to do special studying or particular reading. By this system, during 1910, there were circulated 1,189,118 volumes.

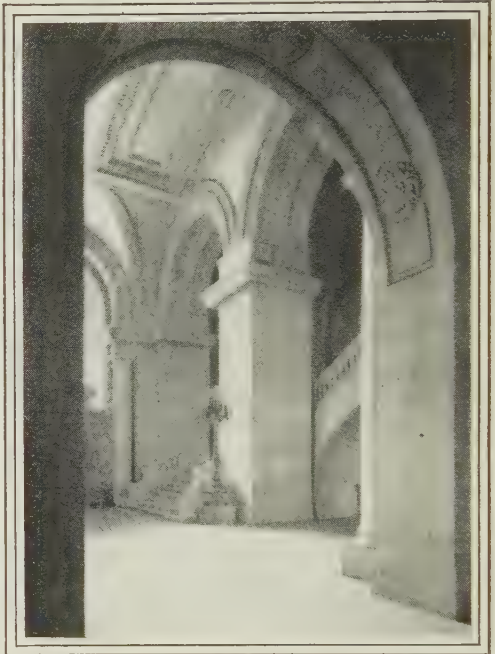
With this increase in library work, it is small wonder that the Astor and Lenox



ENTRANCE HALLWAY

buildings were long since outgrown. It was largely due to the unceasing energy of Dr. John S. Billings, the present director, that the building on Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street has actually materialized after a lapse of twelve years. And while criticisms of a public work of this magnitude are inevitable, there is no doubt that, in general, New York may now boast of a modern library with the latest equipments and with every facility for extensive research.

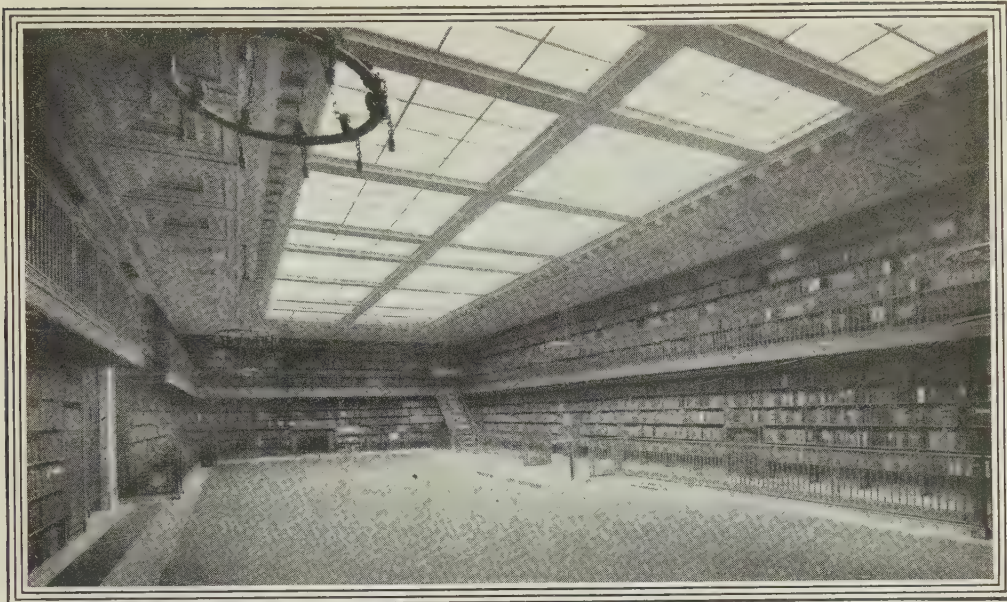
In general, the building is of the Renaissance style, adapted to modern conditions.



ANOTHER HALLWAY VIEW

A structure of this character should be designed primarily to meet the special purposes for which it is erected. Its expanse of Vermont marble, its carved paneling, its domestic and foreign marbles for interior decoration, its richly stuccoed ceilings, the bronze brackets and flagpoles—all these, while enhancing the ornamental character of the library, have nothing to do with the essential utility of the place. The question is whether the rooms are so arranged as to afford every means for quick service and for ready access to the shelves.

These conditions the architects seem to have met. On the top floor of this four-storied library is the main reading room, extending almost the length of two city blocks, and furnished with the latest devices in ele-



THE "AMERICAN HISTORY" READING ROOM, WITH CAPACITY FOR 20,000 VOLUMES

(The New York Public Library's collections in the field of American history are unsurpassed)

vators, pneumatic tubes, and telephones, for instant communication with the stacks and with rooms containing special collections. The main book-shelves are immediately beneath this sumptuous room—seven levels, allowing of sixty-three miles of book space. Adjoining this reading room is the catalogue section, with its six thousand card drawers. This is the heart of the library as far as reference work is concerned; for not only will the reader be able to place his hand upon any book the library contains, but, by means of the "union" feature, he will be able to locate volumes in other libraries, which are not contained in this.

Through spacious halls, rich in tone and almost severe in lines, one is carried to the special departments—technical and artistic; along corridors monastic in depth to reading rooms set aside for newspapers and periodicals, and into galleries for pictures and prints. In the basement is a model children's department; on the same floor provision has been made for a training school, and for a printing plant for library publications. The modern conception of the library as a business necessitates advertising in order to reach the varied interests of a democratic reading public. Book lists for free distribution are compiled, and by these suggestive means, the library is able to indicate its full resources.

In this spacious building the "New York

Public Library: Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations" was opened to the people on May 23. What does it contain in the way of special literary richness? The Lenox Library brings to Forty-second Street its invaluable group of Americana, enriched by Bancroft manuscripts and notes. This collection also includes volumes of music bequeathed by J. W. Drexel in 1888, as well as departments for prints, genealogies, and maps. In other words, the Lenox Library, when it existed at Fifth Avenue and Seventy-first Street, was richer than the Astor in American history, law, music, Bibles, medicine, maps, and Shakespeariana. In manuscripts likewise it was more distinctive, having, as well, special editions of *Miltonia*, Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," and "Don Quixote."

In addition to this, the Lenox brings to the New York Public Library an exceptional collection of books and paintings from the estate of Robert L. Stuart, bequeathed by his widow in 1892 on the condition that it be individualized always, and that it should remain closed on Sundays. Among the canvasses are to be mentioned those by Rosa Bonheur, Corot, Bouguereau, Detaille, Gérôme, George Inness, Meissonier, Troyon and Vibert. A Gobelin tapestry likewise should be counted among the Stuart treasures.

These are further enhanced by the Lenox collections which were brought together by



THE MAGAZINE ROOM OF THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

(The library receives about 7000 current periodicals and has 90,000 bound volumes of periodical literature; one-half of the library's purchasing fund is devoted to this purpose.)

James Lenox, the founder—such canvasses as those by Sir Joshua Reynolds, Constable, Copley, Gainsborough, Landseer, and Turner. In other words, the New York Public Library, through the consolidation, inherited an art collection which will show to excellent advantage in the new galleries reserved for that purpose.

In the Astor Library, the special collections were many; William B. Astor gave a fund in 1853 for technical works. Those wishing to specialize in Hebrew, Oriental, and Russian literature will find rich purchases, increased by such gifts as that made by Jacob H. Schiff. In American history, the ante- and post-revolutionary periods were increased by the Emmet and Bancroft collections, as well as by those volumes from the Ford library which specialized in literature pertaining to the Constitution.

The Tilden Trust included invaluable books on political parties and conventions. In other words, there are few richer historical collections than that contained in the New York Public Library. The move from the Astor and from the Lenox buildings has enabled these books, heretofore so scattered and divided for lack of space, to be assembled



A PUBLIC LIBRARY ROOM MADE ATTRACTIVE TO CHILDREN

(Provision made in one of New York City's branch library buildings for the little folks of the neighborhood)



ROOF READING ROOM OF THE RIVINGTON STREET BRANCH LIBRARY, NEW YORK CITY

(This is one of the East Side libraries largely patronized by children)

in their proper grouping. Now for the first time, in new quarters, the general public will realize what a wealth of material is stored in the department of public documents, how complete the newspaper files are as well as the current periodicals, how suggestive the manuscript collections are. The opening of the new building on Fifth Avenue is really the opening of the rich resources buried heretofore in quarters dark and dingy and old-fashioned.

There are invaluable specimens of books which in themselves represent history, such as block books of the fifteenth century, a Gutenberg Bible, examples of Caxton's art, a copy of the Bay Psalm Book, and first editions of varying values. Such examples make of the Public Library a museum as well as a useful institution. But rich as it is in special collections, a reference library is in constant need of endowment to keep pace with progress as well as to bring to it treasures constantly put upon the market. It is not enough, for example, that the library possesses the excellent Beck collection of

American plays, but the theatrical profession should see that a fund is established for the proper maintenance of a dramatic collection which is needed.

In its present position on Fifth Avenue, the New York Public Library will be greatly reinforced by the close proximity of law, engineering, and medical libraries. The Public Library is further assisted by the fact that in the same city there exist the libraries of the Hispanic Society and of the Union Theological Seminary. While these will not relieve the Public Library from the necessity of having adequate books on these subjects, they will at least make it unnecessary for the Public Library to attempt to outrival them in completeness. Reciprocity among American libraries seems to be the general rule.

The equipment of the library being what it is, the chief concern will now be the spirit in which it is run. The size of the new building necessitates a larger force—some 250 persons being detailed at present to cater to the wants of the people. Efficiency is the

watchword of all public service, and the success of the new building will depend upon this. Dr. Billings has had a long tenure of service in the library world. After his career in the army as a surgeon, he devoted his time to the development of the library of the Surgeon General's Office in Washington, which became under his direction the third largest collection of its kind in the world, and turned his attention to bibliographical work. Then he became identified with the Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, the building for which he planned himself. When he was called to the New York Public Library in 1896, as the successor of a line that included Cogswell, Schroeder, Straznichy, Brevoort, Saunders,

and Little, of the Astor Library, and Moore, Allibone, and Eames, of the Lenox Library, he began to modernize the institution. Three years ago Dr. Billings called to his assistance the experience of Mr. Edwin H. Anderson, whose executive and business ability had brought the Pittsburg Library system to a high point of efficiency. In the last report made by the director it was shown that there was a decrease of desk applicants for 1910. Undoubtedly this was due to the fact that there were insufficient accommodations for those wishing to carry on library researches. If statistics mean anything, the move into larger quarters should increase the number of readers.



PUBLIC SCHOOL CLASS WORK IN THE TOMPKINS SQUARE BRANCH LIBRARY, NEW YORK CITY

(The library system coöperates with the public schools in the work of instruction)



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A VOLUNTEER COMPANY (THIRD CONNECTICUT INFANTRY) IN CAMP NEAR WASHINGTON

THE VOLUNTEER SOLDIER OF 1861

BY GENERAL CHARLES KING, U. S. V.

(This is the sixth in our anniversary series of Civil War articles. The pictures, with the exception of the last, have been taken from the collection of war-time photographs utilized in the preparation of "The Photographic History of the Civil War," the first volume of which came from the press last month. THE EDITOR.)

UNION men wore anxious faces early in the spring of 1861. For months the newspapers had been filled with accounts of the seizure of Government forts and arsenals all over the South. State after State had seceded, and the New York *Tribune*, edited by Horace Greeley, had bewildered the North and encouraged the South by declaring that if the latter desired to set up a government of its own it had every moral right to do so. The little garrison of Fort Moultrie in Charleston Harbor, threatened by a superior force and powerless against land attack, had spiked its guns on Christmas night, in 1860, and pulled away for Sumter, perched on its islet of rocks a mile from shore, hoisted the Stars and Stripes, and there, in spite of pitiful numbers, with a Southern-born soldier at its head, practically defied all South Carolina.

The *Star of the West* had been loaded with soldiers and supplies at New York, and sent to Sumter's relief. Then South Carolina, duly warned, had manned the guns of Morris

Island and driven her back to sea. Not content with that, South Carolina, the envy of an applauding sisterhood of Southern States, had planted batteries on every point within range of Sumter. All the North could see that its fate was sealed, and no one, when the first of April came, could say just how the North would take it.

The second week settled the question. With one accord on April 12, the Southern guns opened on the lone fortress and its puny force. The next day, with the flagstaff shot away and the interior of the fort all ablaze, the casemates thick with blinding smoke, with no hope from friends, the gallant garrison could ask only the mercy of the foes, and it was given willingly—the soldier's privilege of saluting his colors and marching out with the honors of war.

And then the North awoke in earnest. In one day the streets of New York City, all seeming apathy the day before, blazed with a sudden burst of color. The Stars and Stripes

were flung to the breeze from every staff and halyard; the hues of the Union flamed on every breast. The transformation was a marvel. There was but one topic on every tongue, but one thought in every heart: The flag had been downed in Charleston Harbor; the long-threatened secession had begun; the very Capitol at Washington was endangered; the President at last had spoken, in a demand for 75,000 men.

Not until aroused by the echo of the guns at Sumter could or would the people believe the South in deadly earnest. The press and the prophets had not half prepared them. Southern sympathizers had been numerous and aggressive, and when the very heads of the Government at Washington were unrepentful of repeated violation of Federal right and authority, what could be expected of a people reared only in the paths of peace? The military spirit had long been dominant in the South and correspondingly dormant in the North. The South was full of men accus-

tomed to the saddle and the use of arms; the North had but a handful. The South had many soldier schools; the North, outside of West Point, had but one worthy the name. Even as late as the winter of 1860 and 1861 young men in New York, taking counsel of far-seeing elders and assembling for drill, were rebuked by visiting pedagogues who bade them waste no time in silly vanities.

"The days of barbaric battle are dead," said they. "The good sense of the American people will ever stand between us and a resort to arms." The ominous rumble from Pensacola, Augusta, Baton Rouge, and San Antonio meant nothing to these peace proclaimers; it took the thunderclap of Sumter to hush them. It took the sudden and overwhelming uprising of April 15 to bring the hitherto confident backers of the South face to face with an astounding fact. Like a sleeping lion the North had lain, oblivious to challenge, affront, indignity, until, over daring and contemptuous, the foeman slashed the gauntlet



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THE FIRST MINNESOTA VOLUNTEERS

(In spite of the distance from the seat of war, this regiment was one of the first to reach the front. It gave a good account of itself at Bull Run and later sustained a record for conspicuous bravery; notably in its famous charge on the second day at Gettysburg. This photograph was taken at Fort Snelling just before the regiment left for the war)



CROWD GATHERING FOR A GREAT UNION MEETING, IN UNION SQUARE, NEW YORK, APRIL 20, 1861

(The statue of Washington is in the foreground, the Everett House in the distance)

across the placid, slumbering face, and was amazed at the result. The old New York Hotel, for months previous the rendezvous of a throng of Southern folk, for weeks the scene of self-gratulation and rejoicing, on a sudden grew hushed and still, and listened behind drawn blinds to the mighty clamor on the streets without, telling the world the North was aroused at last.

Seventy-five thousand men needed at once!—the active militia called instantly to the front! Less than fifteen thousand regulars, scattered far and wide—many of them in Texas, but mainly on the Indian frontier—could the nation muster in gathering toils. Many a Southern-born officer had resigned and joined the forces of his native State, but the rank and file, horse, foot and gunners,

stood sturdily to their colors. Still, these tried and disciplined men were few and far between.

Utterly unprepared for war of any kind, the Union leaders found themselves forced to improvise an army to defend their seat of government—itsself on Southern soil, and compassed by hostile cities. The new flag of the seceding States was flaunted at Alexandria, in full view of the unfinished dome of the capitol. The colors of the South were openly and defiantly worn in the streets of Baltimore, barring the way of the would-be rescuers.

The veteran Virginian, General Winfield Scott, at the head of the United States Army, had gathered a few light guns in Washington. His soldierly assistant, Colonel Charles P. Stone, had organized, from department clerks

and others, the first armed body of volunteers for the defense of the threatened center, and within a few months the first-named was superseded as too old, the second imprisoned as too Southern—an utterly baseless charge. The one hope to save the capital lay in the swift assembly of the Eastern militia, and by the night of April 15th the long roll was thundering from the walls of every city armory. From Boston Common to the banks of the Mississippi loyal States were wiring assurance of support.

And that night the muster began, Massachusetts promptly rallying her old-line militia in their quaint, high-topped shakos and long gray overcoats—the Sixth and Eighth Regiments mustering at once. New York City was alive with eager but untried soldiery. First and foremost stood her famous Seventh, the best blood and most honored names prominent in its ranks. The old armory at the foot of Third avenue could not contain the crowds that gathered. Close at hand mustered the Seventy-first—the “American Guard” of the ante-bellum days. But a few streets away, with Center Market as a nucleus, other throngs were cheering about the hall where Michael Corcoran, suspended but the year before because his Irishmen would not parade in honor of the Prince of Wales, was now besieged by fellow countrymen, eager to go with him and his gallant Sixty-ninth. Four blocks farther, soon to be led by Cameron, brother to the Pennsylvania Secretary of War, the Highlanders were forming to the skirl of the piper and under the banner of the Seventy-ninth. West of Broadway, Le-Gal and DeTrobriand were welcoming the enthusiastic Frenchmen who made up the old “red-legged Fifty-fifth,” while, less noisily, yet in strong numbers, the Eighth, the Twelfth and in Brooklyn the Fourteenth, were flocking to their armories and listening with bated breath to the latest news and orders from Washington.

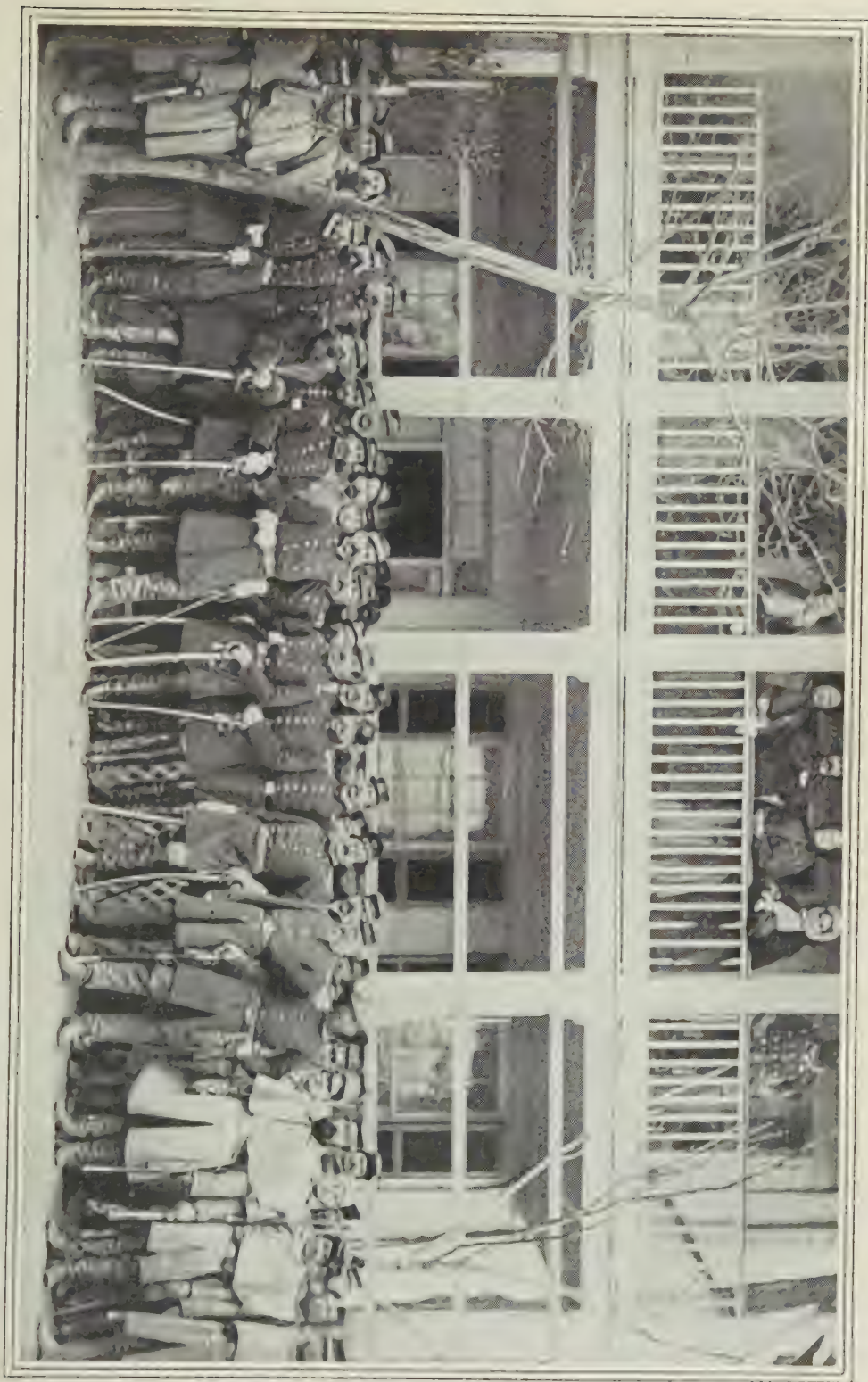
Orders came soon enough. First to march from the metropolis for the front was New York’s soldierly Seventh, striding down Broadway through countless multitudes of cheering citizens, its splendid band almost unheard through the volume of applause. Never before had New York seen its great thoroughfares so thronged; never had it shown such emotion as on that soft April afternoon of the 19th. Prompt as had been the response to marching orders, the gray column of the Seventh was not the first to move. The Massachusetts Sixth had taken the lead one day earlier, and were even now battling their

way through the streets of Baltimore. Barely had the Cortlandt Street Ferry borne the last detachment of the Seventh across the Hudson when the newsboys were shrieking the tidings of the grapple of the men of New England with the “blood-tubs” and “plug-uglies” of the Maryland city. The papers pictured the streets as running with blood, and later harrowed the hearts of thousands by sensational extras telling that the Seventh, too, had been mobbed—the Seventh that had not entered Baltimore at all.

It takes five hours to go from New York to Washington to-day; it took six days that wild week in 1861. The Seventh, with the Massachusetts Eighth for company, had to patch the railway and trudge wearily, yet manfully, from Annapolis to the junction of the old Baltimore and Washington Railroad, before it could again proceed by rail to its great reception on Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington. Then New York’s second offering started—another wonderful day in Gotham. In less than a week from the original call, the active militia was under arms in full ranks, and most of it *en route* for the front.

Farther west the Lake Cities—Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Milwaukee, Chicago—each had mustered a regiment with its own favorite companies—Continental, Grays or Light Guards as a nucleus. Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota each had been called upon for a regiment, and the response was almost instantaneous. Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, more thickly populated, had tendered more than the thousand demanded.

By the first of June, there was camped or billeted about Washington the cream of the State soldiery of every commonwealth east of the Ohio and north of the Potomac—except Maryland. Maryland held aloof. Pennsylvania, asked for twelve thousand men, had rushed twenty thousand to the mustering officers. Massachusetts, called on for fifteen hundred, sent more than twice that number within two days. Ohio, taxed for just ten thousand, responded with twelve thousand, and Missouri, where Southern sentiment was rife and St. Louis almost a Southern stronghold, tumultuously raised ten thousand men, unarmed, undrilled, yet sorely needed. But for Nathaniel Lyon of the regular army, and the prompt muster of her Union men, Missouri would early have been lost to the nation. And as for Kentucky, though in grand numbers and gallant services her sons repudiated his action, Governor Magoffin refused a man for the defense of the general



BLENKER'S DIVISION OF GERMAN VOLUNTEERS

(Brig.-Gen. Louis Blenker stands, with hand on belt, before the door. At his left is Prince Felix Salm-Salm, a Prussian officer who joined the Federal army, as a colonel of volunteers. At General Blenker's right is General Stahel, who led the advance of the Federal left at Cross Keys)

Government, or what he called the "coercion" of the Southern States.

But it was a motley concourse, that which gathered at Washington where all eyes were centered. The call for 75,000 militia for three months was quickly followed by the call for five hundred thousand volunteers for three years, and such was the spirit and enthusiasm of the North that, as fast as they could be uniformed, faster than they could be armed, the great regiments of State volunteers came dustily forth from the troop trains and went trudging along the length of Pennsylvania Avenue, out to the waiting camps in the suburbs. Within the month of its arrival, the Seventh New York, led by engineers and backed by comrade militiamen, had crossed the Potomac, invaded the sacred soil of Virginia, and tossed the red earth into rude fortifications. Then it had been sent home for muster out as musketmen, but, let this ever be remembered—to furnish almost instantly seven hundred officers for the newly organizing regiments, regular and volunteer.

Two little classes of West Point cadets, graduated in May and June respectively, brave boys just out of their bell-buttoned coatees, were set in saddle and hard at work drilling whole battalions of raw lads from the shops and farms, whose elected officers were

to the full as untaught as their men. Local fame as a drillmaster of cadets or Zouaves gave many a young fellow command of a company; some few, indeed, like Ellsworth, even of a regiment. Foreign soldiers of fortune, seeing their chance, had hurried to our shores and tendered their swords, many of them who could barely speak English, receiving high commissions, and swaggering splendidly about the camps and streets. Many of the regiments came headed by local politicians, some who but the year gone by had been fervent supporters of Southern rights and slavery. A favored few came under command of soldierly, skilled young officers from the regular service, and most of them led by grave, thoughtful men in the prime of life who realized their responsibility and their inexperience and studied faithfully to meet the task.

Then wonderful was the variety of uniform! It was marked even before McDowell led forth the raw levies to try their mettle at Bull Run. Among the New Yorkers were Highlanders in plaid "trews," their kilt and bonnets very properly left at home, the blue jackets of the Seventy-first, the gray jackets of the Eighth, and Varian's gunners—some of whom bethought them at Centerville that their time was up and it would be pleasanter "going home than hell-ward," as a grim, red-



A COMPANY OF THREE-MONTHS' TROOPS THAT FOUGHT AT BULL RUN

(Company "D" of the First Rhode Island Regiment at Camp Sprague, near Washington, in the early summer of 1861)



COMPANY "D" OF THE FOURTH KENTUCKY CAVALRY

(The border State volunteers rendered effective service in coöperation with the Federal Army of the Ohio)

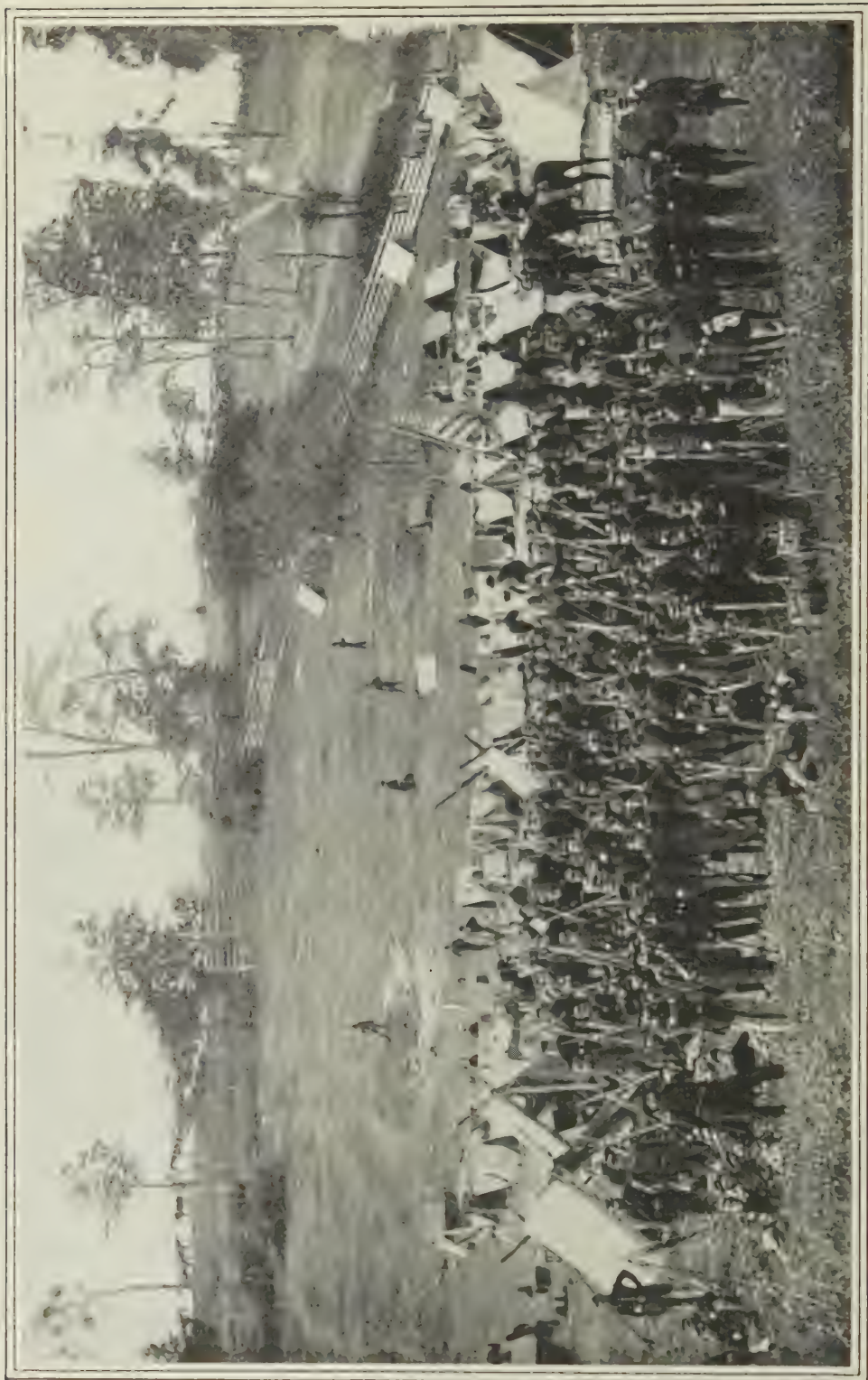
whiskered colonel, Sherman by name, said they surely would if they didn't quit straggling. There were half-fledged Zouaves like the Fourteenth New York (Brooklyn) and full-rigged Zouaves, albeit their jackets and "knickers" were gray and only their shirts were red—the First "Fire" of New York, who had lost their martial little colonel—Ellsworth—before Jackson's shotgun in Alexandria. There were Rhode Islanders in pleated blue blouses—Burnside's boys; there were far Westerners from Wisconsin in fast-fading gray. Michigan and Minnesota each was represented by a strong regiment. Blenker's Germans were there, a reserve division in gray from head to foot. There were a few troops of regular cavalry, their jackets gaudy with yellow braid and brazen shoulder scales. There were the grim regular batteries of Carlisle, Ricketts, and Griffin, their blouses somber, but the cross cannon on their caps gleaming with polish, such being the way of the regular. It was even more marvelous later, when McClellan had come to organize the vast array into brigades and divisions, and to bring order out of chaos, for chaotic it was after Bull Run—yet no better South than North, though it was not known at the time.

The States were uniforming their soldiery as best they could in that summer of 1861. New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania usually in blue, the Vermonters in gray,

turned up with emerald, as befitted the Green Mountain boys. The one Western brigade in the newly formed Army of the Potomac came clad in gray throughout, not to be changed for the blue until late in September.

But for variety, New York City led the country. A second regiment of Fire Zouaves had been quickly formed, as dashing in appearance as the first. Abram Duryea of the old militia (with a black-eyed, solemn-faced little regular as second in command, soon to become famous as a corps leader) marched forth at the head of a magnificent body of men, the color guard, nearly all seven-footers, all the scarlet fez and breeches of the favorite troops of France. Zouave rig was by long odds the most pleasing to the popular eye in the streets of the big city—and, less happily, to Southern marksmen later—for all in a day the improvised wooden barracks were thronging with eager lads seeking enlistment in the Zouave regiments. Baxter's in Philadelphia, Farnsworth's (Second Fire), Duryea's (Fifth New York), Bendix, Hawkins' and "Billy Wilson's" in New York, the last an aggregation of street Arabs, well known to the police, promptly accepted more for municipal than national reasons, promptly mustered and then shipped to a sand spit in the Gulf, as far as possible from New York and where they could do harm to nobody.

To cater still further to the love for the spectacular and the picturesque, still more



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A CHARACTERISTIC GROUP OF CITIZEN SOLDIERS—THE NINETY-THIRD NEW YORK INFANTRY JUST BEFORE THE BATTLE OF ANTIETAM



THE "FIGHTING FORTY-FOURTH" OF INDIANA

(In the two days' fighting at Shiloh this regiment lost nearly half its strength)

distinctive regiments were authorized—the Garibaldi Guard—mainly Italians, under Colonel D'Utassy, in a dress that aped the Bersaglieri. The D'Epineul Zouaves, French and would-be Frenchmen, in the costliest costume yet devised, and destined to be abandoned before they were six months older. Still another French battalion, also in Algerian campaign rig—“*Les Enfants Perdus*.” Lost Children indeed, once they left New York and fell in with the campaigners of Uncle Sam. Then came the Chasseurs, in very natty and attractive dress, worn like the others until worn out in one real campaign, when its wearers, like the others lost their identity in the universal, most unbecoming, yet eminently serviceable blue flannel blouse and light-blue kersey trousers, with the utterly ugly forage cap and stout brogans of the Union army.

Fanciful names they took, too, at the start, and bore proudly at home but meekly enough at the front, where speedily the “Ellsworth Avengers” became the Hundred and Fortieth, the “Brooklyn Phalanx” the Sixty-seventh, the “Engineers” the Thirty-eighth, the “Lancers” the Sixth Pennsylvania. Dick Rush’s gallant troopers were soon known as the “Seventh Regulars,” and well did they earn the title. So, too, in the West, where the “Guthrie Grays,” once Cincinnati’s favorite corps, was swallowed up in the Sixth Ohio—and in St. Louis, where the “Fremont Rifles,” “Zagonyi Guards” and “Foreign Legions” drew many an alien to the folds of the flag and later to the dusty blue of the Union soldier.

As for arms, the regiments came to the front with every conceivable kind and some with none at all. The regular infantry, what there was of it, had but recently given up the old smooth-bore musket for the Springfield rifle, caliber 58, with its paper cartridge and conical, counter-sunk bullet; but Harper’s Ferry Arsenal had been burned, Springfield could not begin to turn out the numbers needed; Rock Island Arsenal was not yet built, and so in many a regiment flank companies, only, received the rifle, the other eight using for months the old smooth-bore with its “buck and ball” cartridge, good for something within two hundred yards and for nothing beyond.

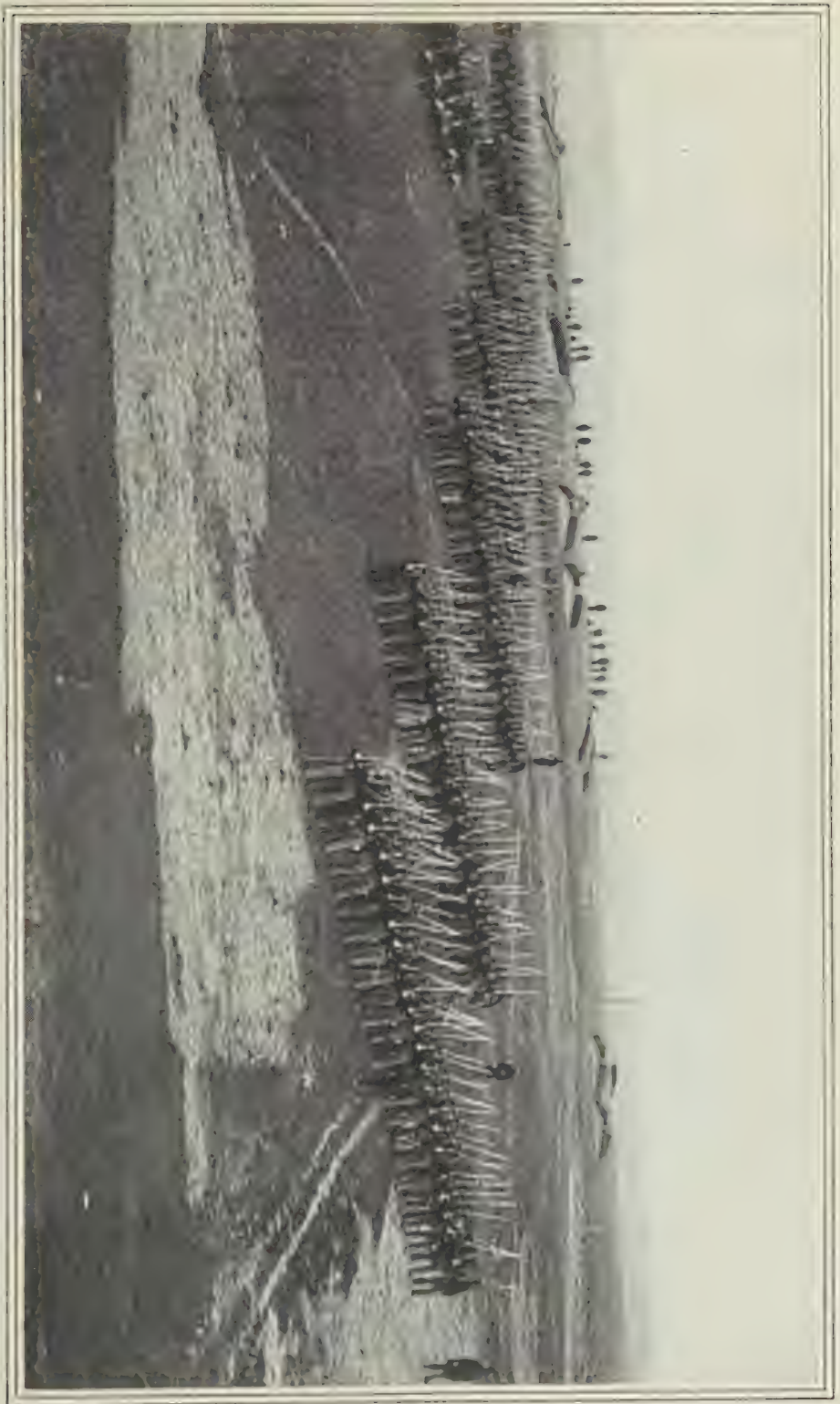
Even of these there were enough for only the first few regiments. Vast purchases, therefore, were made abroad, England selling us her Enfields, with which the fine Vermont brigade was first armed, and France and Belgium parting with thousands of the huge,

brass-bound, ponderous “*carabine a tige*”—the Belgian guns with a spike at the bottom to expand the soft leaden bullet when “rammed home.” With this archaic blunderbus whole regiments were burdened, some foreign-born volunteers receiving it eagerly as “from the old country,” and therefore superior to anything of Yankee invention. But their confidence was short-lived. One day’s march, one short hour’s shooting, ended all predilection for such a weapon.

And then the shoes with which the Federals reached the front! Not one pair out of four would have borne the test of a ten-mile tramp, not one out of ten would have stood the strain of a ten-days’ march, and those that first took their places, the make of contractors, were even worse. Not until the “Iron Secretary,” Stanton, got fairly into swing did contractors begin to learn that there was a man to dread in the Department of War, but Stanton had not even been suggested in the fall of 1861. Simon Cameron, the Venerable Pennsylvania politician, was still in office. McClellan, the young, self-centered, commanding general, was riding diligently from one review to another, a martial sight, with his staff, orderlies and escort.

The weather was perfect along the Potomac that gorgeous early autumn of ’61. The beautiful wooded heights were crowned with camps; the plains and fields were white with snowy tentage; the dust hung lazily over countless drill grounds and winding roadways; the bands were out in force on every afternoon, filling the soft, sunshiny air with martial melody; the camps were thronged with smile-wreathed visitors, men and women from distant homes; the streets of Washington were crowded, and its famous old *caravanserais* prospering, as never before, for never had the nation mustered in such overwhelming strength as here about the sleepy old Southern “city of magnificent distances”—a tawdry, shabby town in all conscience, yet a priceless something to be held against the world in arms, for the sacred flag that floated over the columned White House—for the revered and honored name it bore.

In seven strong divisions, with three or four brigades in each, “Little Mac,” as the volunteers rejoiced to call him, had organized his great army as the autumn waned, and the live-long days were spent in the constant drill, drill that was absolutely needed to impart cohesion and discipline to this vast array, mostly American bred, and hitherto unschooled in discipline of any kind. When McDowell marched his militiamen forward to



MAKING AN ARMY—THE TWENTY-SIXTH NEW YORK

(Here we see the process of making raw recruits into soldiers. After the transformation had been completed this regiment saw some of the hardest fighting of the war. It went into the battle of Fredericksburg 300 strong and came out with a loss of 170,—nearly 60 per cent.)

attack Beauregard at Bull Run, they swarmed all over the adjacent country, picking berries, and plundering orchards. Orders were things to obey only when they got ready and felt like it, otherwise "Cap"—as the company commander was hailed, or the "orderly," as throughout the war very generally and improperly the first sergeant was called—might shout for them in vain. "Cap," the lieutenant, the sergeants—all for that matter—were in their opinion creatures of their own selection and, if dissatisfied with their choice, if officer or non-commissioned officer ventured to assert himself, to "put on airs," as our early-day militiamen expressed it, the power that made could just as soon, so they supposed, unmake.

It took many weeks to teach them that, once mustered into the service of "Uncle Sam," this was by no means the case. They had come reeling back from Bull Run, a tumultuous mob of fugitives, some of whom halted not even on reaching Washington. It took time and sharp measures to bring them back to their colors and an approximate sense of their duties. One fine regiment, indeed, whose soldierly colonel was left dead, found itself disarmed, deprived of its colors, discredited, and a dozen of its self-selected lead-

ers summarily court-martialed and sentenced for mutiny. It took time and severe measures to bring officers and men back from Washington to camp thereafter to reappear in town only in their complete uniform, and with the written pass of a brigade commander.

It took more time and many and many a lesson, hardest of all, to teach them that the men whom they had known for years at home as "Squire" or "Jedge," "Bob" or "Billy," could now only be respectfully addressed, if not referred to, as captain, lieutenant or sergeant. It took still longer for the American man-at-arms to realize that there was good reason why the self-same "Squire" or "Jedge" or even a "Bob" or "Billy" of the year agone, could not now be accosted or even passed without a soldierly straightening up, and a prompt lifting of the open hand to the visor of the cap. To this day that salute is the hardest thing for the average American to render, so utterly averse is he to personal demonstration of homage to rank or authority. To his thinking, it has no place in the philosophy of the free-born. Yet a few months in the school of the soldier, the camp, the march, and it became instinctive. Moreover, it was easier to instill in '61 than when next our nation mustered its fighting men in '98.



SURVIVORS OF DURYEA'S (NEW YORK) ZOUAVES AFTER HALF A CENTURY

(See page 715)

TWENTY YEARS OF INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT

BY BRANDER MATTHEWS

JUST twenty years ago, on the first of July, 1891, there went into effect the act of Congress which conferred upon foreign authors the protection of our copyright laws. This legislation marked the end of an arduous struggle which had extended throughout the better part of the nineteenth century. The conditions of publishing are so different now from those which obtained prior to the passage of this act that it is difficult for the younger generation to understand the situation which the new legislation abolished. Before considering the beneficent effects of the act, it may not be superfluous to recall briefly the evils which it was designed to remedy.

We understand by the word copyright, the right of an author to the absolute ownership of what he has written. It means that he can control the manufacture and sale of the book as he could control the manufacture and sale of any other article which was his property. But property, as Lowell declared with his robust common sense, "property, whether in books or land, or anything else, is artificial; it is purely a creation of law, and more than that, of local and municipal law." Property was recognized first in tools and then in land, that is to say in actual possessions. Not for centuries did law develop to the point where it was ready to protect intangible things like the right of an inventor, or of an author to control that which he had devised. And even when local and municipal law did start to stretch its shield over these intangible things, the protection it was able to afford was at first casual and inadequate. Only in the course of long years, and in response to the shrill complaints of the despoiled authors, did the protection become definite and adequate.

Apparently the first copyright ever granted was that conferred by a decree of the Senate of Venice in 1469, declaring that a certain man should have the sole privilege of printing the letters of Cicero for the space of seven years. This decree was operative only in the territory of the Venetian republic; it did not prevent other printers elsewhere in Italy from profiting by the arduous labors of the original editor-publisher. In the

course of three centuries which followed this initial act of the Venetian Senate, the protection which had then been granted by caprice to a special individual broadened into a right which any citizen could obtain by complying with the prescribed formalities; the territory through which the protection was valid was extended from a city and its dependencies to a whole nation; and the period of time was repeatedly lengthened. In England, in 1710, the author's exclusive control over his book was to be for fourteen years, and for a second fourteen years if he should survive the first; and in 1842, the term was extended to be forty-two years or for the life of the author and seven years more, whichever should be the longer. Yet these developments of local and municipal law had been so sluggish that when Goethe announced a complete edition of his works in 1826, it required a special act of the Bundestag to secure him against German reprints which he had not authorized.

Early in the nineteenth century, the several nations of Europe were granting fairly satisfactory protection to the authors of their several languages within their own boundaries. But they could not extend the protection of their local laws beyond these boundaries. Unauthorized editions of French writers were issued in Belgium and in Switzerland and these managed to leak into France, where they competed unfairly with the copyright editions from which the French writers derived their profit. Translations into foreign tongues were made without the consent of the author; and some of them had an enormous sale without in any way benefiting the original writer. The authors felt this grievance keenly and they protested energetically. They held that these reprints and these translations were invasions of their rights. As Mr. Frederic Harrison has tersely put it, "Rights are primarily what the law will secure for each, and secondarily, what each may think himself worthy to receive." National copyright had been attained and it was found to be insufficient. There was an insistent demand for international copyright.

Just as national copyright had a slow but steady evolution, so international copyright gradually succeeded in establishing itself. The nations, one by one, awoke to the fact that the absence of international copyright inflicted an indisputable injustice upon their men of letters. "It has been said"—to quote Mr. H. S. Foxwell—"that the science of one age is the common sense of the next; and it might with equal truth be said that the equity of one age becomes the law of the next. If positive law is the basis of order, ideal right is the active factor in progress." So it was that in the midyears of the nineteenth century the several nations of Europe began to make treaties with one another, whereby the protection granted by the national law of copyright was extended to aliens. Finally, in 1887 they united in the convention of Berne, whereby a uniform agreement was substituted for the many discordant treaties.

While the nations of Europe were thus coming to an understanding for the benefit of literature, no similar agreement had been reached between Great Britain and the United States. Early in the nineteenth century the authors of France had suffered at the hands of Belgian reprinters and the authors of Germany at the hands of Austrian reprinters. But Belgium is a small country, after all, and comparatively few of the subjects of Austria-Hungary have German as a mother-tongue; and therefore the loss of the French and German authors, however annoying, was not beyond bearing. Great Britain and the United States, however, were populous countries, having a common language and possessing each of them a large body of readers; and therefore a very serious loss was inflicted upon the British author who saw his books widely reprinted in the United States without his profiting in any way by this immense circulation of his work. There are few periods in the history of English literature which are richer than the Victorian; but while the chief Victorian authors won immediate fame in the United States, they reaped little or no reward in money. The essays of Macaulay, the poems of Tennyson, and the novels of Dickens were multiplied in American reprints without the consent of the authors and with little or no recognition of their right to proper payment.

It was in these midyears of the nineteenth century that American literature was struggling into existence; and American authors suffered severely from the absence of international copyright. They labored under a

two-fold disadvantage. In the first place, the American writer had to sell his wares in unfair competition with British books, which were cheap because they had not been paid for. When American readers could get a novel of Scott's or of Dickens' for a quarter, they felt less inclined to pay a dollar for a novel of Cooper's or of Hawthorne's. And the same premium of cheapness tended to increase the sale of Tennyson and to decrease the sale of Longfellow and of Poe. The British author had at least his home market, whereas the American author found his home market preëmpted by the foreigner. As a result, the American man of letters was unable to rely on literature for his living; he had to have some other means of support. Longfellow and Lowell were college professors; Hawthorne was delighted to accept successive places in the public service; and Emerson was forced into lecturing to assure the modest income sufficient for his simple wants.

In the second place, the American author who was able to win the approval of British readers was as defenseless in Great Britain as the British author was in the United States. For his later novels, Cooper received little or nothing from any British publisher. A few years before his death, Longfellow asserted that he had had twenty-two publishers in England and in Scotland and that "only four of them took the slightest notice of my existence, even so far as to send me a copy of the books." Lowell's "Biglow Papers," Holmes' "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," and Mark Twain's "Innocents Abroad" were multiplied in cheap editions in London without any payment to the authors. But the American writer who suffered most severely from the absence of international copyright between England and Americans was Mrs. Stowe. It has been calculated that more than half a million copies of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" were sold in Great Britain in the first year of its publication. One publishing house in London has confessed that it was able to establish itself only because of the profit it had made out of this single American book,—a profit which was not shared with the author. From the millions of copies of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" sold throughout the British Empire and throughout the civilized world, Mrs. Stowe received no returns whatever. She profited only from the sales here in the United States.

And while American authors were deprived of their just reward on the foreign editions of their works and while they were forced to

sell their books at home in an unfair competition with stolen goods, the people of the United States as a whole were also suffering from the indirect consequence of their unwillingness to enact a proper law of international copyright. They were thereby nourishing their souls on a literature which was not their own, a literature which—whatever its many merits—did not represent their own life, their own customs, their own ideals. Maine declared that the power to grant patents had made “the American people the first in the world for the number and ingenuity of the inventions by which it has promoted the useful arts, while, on the other hand, the neglect to exercise this power for the advantage of foreign writers has condemned the whole American community to a literary servitude unparalleled in the history of thought.”

No doubt, this is an overstatement of the case against us. But beyond all question it was not wholesome for any people to be dependent on another people for its literature. That literature is best for a nation which is most closely related to its own life. As Dr. Holmes put it aptly, “Society is a strong solution of books; it draws the virtue out of what is best worth reading, as hot water draws the strength of tea-leaves.” However superior the British literature of the nineteenth century might be to the American, there was disadvantage and even danger for us in thus forcing foreign authors upon American readers to the neglect of native authors.

The evils of this unfortunate situation had long been plain. It was in 1837 that Henry Clay had presented to Congress a petition of British authors asking for American copyright. In 1848 a memorial was presented signed by Bryant, among others. Every few years thereafter petitions were presented and bills were introduced; yet while discussion was abundant, nothing was achieved. Finally, in 1883, the American Copyright League was organized and it soon enrolled in its ranks the majority of our writers. Lowell accepted the presidency and he wrote the ringing quatrain which the league took as its motto:

In vain we call old notions fudge,
And bend our conscience to our dealing;
The Ten Commandments will not budge,
And stealing will continue stealing.

A few years later—in 1887, in fact—the American Publishers' Copyright League was formed by the publishers to coöperate with

the American Copyright League, which was made up mainly of authors. A conference committee of the two leagues took charge of the arduous task of enlightening public opinion and of persuading Congress. Authors' readings were held in various cities; pamphlets were published; and none of the appliances of persuasion were neglected. Finally the bill which had been agreed upon was amended to meet the desires of the printers; and at last, early in 1891, it was passed to take effect on the first of July.

The act of 1891 was a compromise between contending interests; and like all compromises it was completely satisfactory to no one of these interests. It imposed upon foreign authors the onerous and often impossible condition of manufacturing their books in the United States. It required the publication in the United States of the foreign original to secure the author's rights in an authorized translation. It has since been amended so as to remove the more obvious of these restrictions; and it grants to dramatists, native and foreign, the protection of the criminal courts. But whatever its defects, then and now, it accomplished its immediate purpose. It abolished the habit of piracy both in the United States and Great Britain. Although a few American authors have since been despoiled in England and although a few British authors have been deprived of their proper reward in America, these injustices are now only sporadic; and they are increasingly infrequent. American writers are no longer exposed to an iniquitous competition with stolen goods; and the premium of cheapness no longer forces British books into circulation in the United States. Books, whether of British authorship or American, now sell on their merits on both sides of the ocean. There is still much to be done to make international copyright between Great Britain and the United States all that it ought to be. But the main thing has been done, once for all. No more does the black flag fly over the news-stands of New York and over the book-stalls of London.

One of the immediate consequences of the act of 1891 was to diminish the circulation in the United States of the less important British works of fiction. Twenty-five years ago a very large proportion of the novels issued in London were reprinted in New York, even if they were unlikely to appeal to the American public. For example, I knew one British story which failed so completely that the author saw fit to compensate the London publishers for their loss; and

yet this tale was issued in New York by at least three different houses, all of whom strove to press upon the American public a book which the British public had rejected. The writings of the less important British novelists were thus forced into circulation in the United States because they could be reprinted without payment to the author. As soon as these stories had to be paid for they were severely let alone, and the market was supplied by stories of American authorship, possibly of no greater merit, but more in accord with the likings of American readers.

Of course, the books of the more important British writers continue to be issued in the United States, but not now in the shabby and unworthy editions which were the result of piratical competition. And for these books their authors are now properly paid. In fact, it is probable that a major part of the income of the half-dozen leading British novelists is now derived from America. But the writings of these British novelists are no longer recommended to American readers by the premium of cheapness; they sell on their merits alone. As a result the large majority of the novels now read in the United States are of American authorship. In the lists of the so-called "best sellers," made up monthly and yearly, more than two-thirds of the titles are of native origin. The novels now read by the American public may be no better in quality than they were a quarter of a century ago, but at least they are our own; they represent our own life, our own customs and our own ideals. The "literary servitude," as Maine termed it, of the American people to the British branch of the literature of our common language is not a fact now, whatever it may have been half a century ago. We borrow from Great Britain its best books or at least those of its best books which are best suited to our needs; and the British borrow from us such of our books as they may desire. Thus the two streams of English literature in the twentieth century flow side by side, commingling more or less, but each going on its own way.

What the copyright act of 1891 did was to put the American publishing business upon a sound basis by relieving the more honorable houses from the cutthroat competition of less scrupulous firms who were willing to profit by the laxity of the law as it was prior

to the passage of the act. And the stability of the publishing trade is a condition precedent to the full development of literature. The author is worthy of his wages. A poet may write for fame, but he also needs food. No artist can feel assured of his daily bread unless the economic organization is sound. The absence of international copyright unsettled the American publishing trade; and it therefore discouraged American publishers from issuing books of American authorship. This discouragement operated not only to deter the publishers' acceptance of American fiction, it interfered also with his acceptance of less amusing literature,—poetry and criticism, biography and history. In all of these departments of literature there has been a marked increase in American productivity in the score of years since international copyright gave security to American publishers.

In the summer of 1888 the Incorporated Society of Authors, of which Tennyson was president, gave a dinner to the American men of letters who happened then to be in London, in recognition of the efforts of American authors to bring about a proper protection of British authors. Mr. Bryce presided and Lowell made the most effective after-dinner address it was ever my privilege to hear. He took occasion to say that it was the "almost unanimous conclusion of American authors that we should be thankful to get any bill which recognized the principle of international copyright, being confident that its practical application would so recommend it to the American people that we should get afterward, if not every amendment of it we can desire, at least every one that is humanly possible." The poet is often a prophet by virtue of possession of the vision and the faculty divine. What Lowell then prophesied has come to pass. Whatever its defects, the act which went into effect just three years after he uttered these words established the principle of international copyright. The practical application of the act has so recommended it to the American people that we have been able to get various amendments strengthening and enlarging the original act. Most important of all is a lengthening of the term of copyright from a possible forty-two years to a possible fifty-six. We have not yet got every amendment we can desire; but we probably have got all that has been humanly possible up to the present time.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

SOCIALISM AND NATIONAL INEFFICIENCY

THAT Socialism has made rapid strides of late few will be prepared to deny. Not all, however, will share the views of Mr. J. N. Larned, expressed in the *Atlantic Monthly* for May, under the title, "Prepare for Socialism." He there says: "The movement has now gathered a momentum that will carry it surely to some vital and momentous outcome of change in the organization of society." And again: "It is a movement which moves continuously, with no reactionary signs. . . . It is a movement of such nature, in fact, as seems likely to break suddenly, some day, into avalanches and floods." Accepting this inevitability, Mr. Larned urges the desirability of safeguarding against "ruinous recklessness or perfidy in the working out of so critical a change." And he thinks "it is nowhere too soon to take serious thought of what we need to be doing in such preparation."

Obviously the first thought must be of the forces of opinion which act on the propositions of Socialism from different dispositions of mind; and Mr. Larned divides the possible attitudes of thought and feeling on the subject into six classes: (1) The radical disciples of Karl Marx; (2) others in the same wage-earning class who have not yet answered the socialistic call, but are likely to do so; (3) people who approve the social rearrangements contended for by Marx, but who would seek to attain them by gradual processes and would not support any program of hasty revolution; (4) people who are or hope to be gainers personally from the existing economic system and who see nothing but a wicked attack on their personal rights in the proposed limitation of private capital and its gains; (5) people who are not thus biased, but who do not believe that productive industries and exchanges can be operated with success in the mode proposed; and (6) people who have not yet given enough attention to the socialistic movement to have a thought or a feeling about it. Analyzing these classes Mr. Larned designates the first and fourth as "the centers of the antagonism developed by the social-economic doctrines of Marx," and he opines that "the outcome of that antagonism will depend on the action of forces from these two on the other four." He says further:

All of the wage-workers of the world are possible recruits to be won for Socialism, and they outnumber all other divisions of civilized mankind. They make up the first and second orders of the classification set forth above, and the second of these stands plainly in the relation of a waiting-list to the first.

On the other side of the issue are the people who have a personal stake in the capitalistic system; but they do not compare in numbers with the opposing host. It may have, or seem to have, an assured body of important allies in the fifth group; but how far is that assured? How these people will be moved hereafter is most likely to depend on the direction which the socialistic movement takes. At any rate there is no certainty of opposition to Socialism from any large part of this fifth class. The sixth and remaining class is of course a negligible quantity for either side. All considered, Mr. Larned sees the appearances to be distinctly favorable to the socialistic movement thus far. And supposing the spread of socialistic opinion to be carried to the point of readiness for taking control of government, "What then?" he asks.

The Socialist party, in that case, would simply take the place of our Republican or our Democratic party, as "the party in power," and would exercise its power in the customary party modes. The keen-scented fortune-hunters and professional experts of politics would already have swarmed to it from the old parties; would have wormed themselves into its counsels and perfected its "organization," with a full equipment of the most approved "machines." Then the nationalizing and the municipalizing of productive industries, and the taking-over of capital from private to collective ownership, would begin. Some Croker or Murphy would be found to "boss" the management of the operation in New York, some Quay in Pennsylvania, some Gorman in Maryland, and so on, throughout the land.

Therefore the most urgent of all reasons for a radical and immediate reformation of parties and the politics they embody exists in the progress of socialistic belief.

Writing in the same number of the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. J. O. Fagan calls attention to the great awakening of private opinion to a sense of its responsibility for the behavior and character of the units of society, which at the present day is unmistakable.

Regardless of politics and wages, people are now finding time to talk about individuality and Socialism. . . . Against the current of their inner wishes they are being driven by public opinion toward Socialism, while at the same time, prompted by private opinion, they continue to glorify the American standard-bearers who in the past have conducted the democratic principle from pinnacle to pinnacle of achievement.

Now the Socialists propose, says Mr. Fagan, to accomplish their ends in general by the restriction of individual initiative, and by abolishing private property and the existing competitive system. In other words, the individual as owner and director of brains and property must go. The Socialists, the labor-unions, and their sympathizers are saying to American workers in general and to railroad men in particular:

Exchange your individuality for your pay-roll and your conditions. Take no thought for the morrow. Look to your unions and to society for everything. Society is getting ready in bountiful measures to pension your veterans, to recompense you for injuries, to surround you with a healthy and comfortable environment, and to see to it that you are well clad, well fed, and well housed, and that your religion even is adapted and made to harmonize with your socialistic or unionized condition. All this and more of a similar and praiseworthy nature is to be secured on the distinct understanding that you must not interfere with these plans of the Socialists, of your unions and of society in your behalf, by taking any personal share or responsibility in the proceedings. Society is willing to shoulder all the risk and take all the responsibility.

In regard to the efficiency of labor, Mr. Roosevelt has taken his stand as follows (in a recent issue of the *Outlook*):

He, the workingman, ought to join with his fellows in a union, or in some similar association for mutual help and betterment, and in that association he should strive to raise higher his less com-

petent brothers; but he should positively decline to allow himself to be dragged down to their level, and if he does thus permit himself to be dragged down the penalty is the loss of individual, of class, and finally of *national efficiency*.

As Mr. Fagan regards it, Socialism and national inefficiency are synonymous. And the remedy must come from within and not from without.

The key to the situation lies in the inevitable outbreak of what is at present latent private opinion. The reality of this force at the root of American civilization is not open to doubt. Among the workers themselves it is awake and awakening.

The individualist does not propose to submit silently to the domination of public opinion in these matters of social and industrial development. Private opinion is forever working out into higher standards of public opinion. Some time ago Mr. George Hugo, president of the Employers' Association of Massachusetts, addressed a body of Socialists as follows:

Do you as Socialists for one moment believe that the unjust taking or confiscating of property by the simple act of the stroke of the pen will be accepted peaceably by individuals who now own property? Individual freedom and the private ownership of property will not be superseded by slavery and collective ownership without a struggle.

On this Mr. Fagan remarks:

Mr. Hugo is right, for it is quite as reprehensible to confiscate the ambition of the worker as it is to steal the property of the capitalist. But the struggle and the constructive work in the future are to be in the main, and to begin with, an internal movement. It is to be a revolt of American private opinion against Socialism and national inefficiency. One of the principal agents in this revolt is likely to be the enlightened, well-paid, well-conditioned, and well-organized laboring man.

THE FIRST INTERNATIONAL JUDICIARY

OF the many results actually achieved by the second Hague Conference it is safe to say that the most important is the establishment of the International Court of Prize. The outbreak of war lays a heavy hand upon neutrals as well as belligerents, closing to the neutral markets which in peace were his, and subjecting under certain conditions his commerce on the high seas to visit and search, capture, and ultimate confiscation, if a belligerent is minded to stand upon his rights and strong enough to enforce them. As Mr. James Brown Scott remarks, in the *American Journal of International Law*:

The belligerent determines what is contraband, blockades the port of his enemy, and frames the rules for neutral observance. Neutral property falling within the inhibited class is seized and the vessel and its cargo destined to a port of blockade is captured according to the rules which the neutral did not frame, and adjudged lawful prize by a court in which he is not represented other than as a suitor who follows his property and requests its restoration from one who is alone entitled to pass upon the legality or illegality of his own acts.

The prize court to be constituted at The Hague will be a court of appeal; for it presupposes a decision of a municipal prize court. The national courts are to give final judgment within two years from the date of

capture, otherwise the case may be carried direct to the international court. In Article III of the additional protocol, signed at The Hague on September 19, 1910, the question of appeal is thus discussed:

The judgments of national prize courts may be brought before the International Prize Court:

1. When the judgment of the national prize courts affects the property of a neutral power or individual;

2. When the judgment affects enemy property and relates to:

(a) Cargo on board a neutral ship;

(b) An enemy ship captured in the territorial waters of a neutral power, when that power has not made the capture the subject of a diplomatic claim;

(c) A claim based upon the allegation that the seizure has been effected in violation either of the provisions of a convention in force between the belligerent powers, or of an enactment issued by the belligerent captor.

On the question whether the appeal may be taken solely by the nation for its subjects or citizens, or whether the injured individuals may themselves institute proceedings, the following provisions were adopted:

An appeal may be brought:

1. By a neutral power, if the judgment of the national tribunals injuriously affects its property or the property of its nationals (Article III, 1), or if the capture of any enemy vessel is alleged to have taken place in the territorial waters of that power (Article III, 2, b);

2. By a neutral individual, if the judgment of the national court injuriously affects his property (Article III, 1), subject, however, to the reservation that the power to which he belongs may forbid him to bring the case before the court, or may itself undertake the proceedings in his place;

3. By an individual subject or citizen of an enemy power, if the judgment of the national court injuriously affects his property in the cases referred to in Article III, 2, except that mentioned in paragraph (b) (Article IV).

As the law to be administered in the court of prize was not codified and accepted by the nations parties to the prize convention, Great Britain called a conference to consider and codify various important principles of international law in such a satisfactory manner that it is reasonable to assume that it will be generally accepted. The community of nations has, therefore, an International Court of Prize and a substantial body of law for the guidance of the court charged with its administration and interpretation. Article VIII, dealing with the validity or nullity of the capture of a vessel, reads as follows:

If the court pronounces the capture of the vessel or cargo to be valid, they shall be disposed of in accordance with the laws of the belligerent captor.

If it pronounces the capture to be null, the court shall order restitution of the vessel or cargo, and shall fix, if there is occasion, the amount of the damages. If the vessel or cargo has been destroyed, the court shall determine the compensation to be given to the owner on this account.

If the national court pronounced the capture to be null, the court can only be asked to decide as to the damages.

After much discussion, concession, and compromise, it was eventually decided that the court should consist of fifteen judges, jurists of known proficiency in questions of international maritime law, and of the highest moral reputation, and that they should hold office for a period of six years, subject, however, to reappointment. Nine judges to constitute a quorum, and an absent judge to be replaced by a deputy, so that the panel may be full. One judge is to be appointed by each of the following countries: Germany, the United States, Austria-Hungary, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan and Russia.

WOMAN IN THE MODERN DRAMA

TO the casual observer of matters dramatic it would appear that every conceivable incident, situation, and condition in the mundane existence of men and women had been utilized by modern dramatists. It is with some surprise, therefore, that one meets such a paragraph as the following, which occurs in an article by Miss Marjorie Strachey in the May *Englishwoman*:

As regards women the modern drama has before it a magnificent and almost untouched field, for the position is, and has been for fifty years, in a state of transition; and, what is perhaps even

more disturbing and perplexing, our ideal of what women ought to be is changing with a dizzy rapidity. With the speed and variety of the transformations our dramatists seem to find it hard to keep pace. In real life few of us now consider it necessary for the most "womanly" woman to be insincere, hysterical, ill-educated, and incompetent. Yet on the stage even to-day many heroines are richly endowed with all these failings, without a hint on anybody's part that they are on that account a whit less adorable.

One does not expect, says this writer, a logical character-study in a melodrama, nor, on the other hand, do we expect Sir Arthur

Pinero ruthlessly to sacrifice character and custom for the sake of a *dénouement*. Yet what else does he do in "His House in Order"?

"The Notorious Mrs. Ebbsmith" furnishes one of the earliest attempts to give a full-length portrait of a woman who is essentially the product of modern conditions; and the result is scarcely successful.

Mrs. Ebbsmith, who is held up as a noble, intellectual woman with a good heart and perverted ideas on marriage and religion, is—so far as she exists at all—a stupid sentimentalist, ill-informed, pretentious, superstitious, and, above all, remarkable for bad taste. It is impossible to take her seriously.

Mrs. Ebbsmith, however, initiated a class of modern dramatic heroines—the women who earn their own living. *Mrs. Ebbsmith* had been a hospital nurse.

"Letty" gives us three young women who are self-supporting, and in "The Gay Lord Quex" we are carried right into the place of business of *Miss Fulgarney*, the manicurist. This is an interesting and delightful recognition of the fact that at any rate some women are not exclusively occupied with love interests, but are obliged to lead a hard-working life, if they live at all. Here, then, is one of the topics to which a modern dramatist might devote himself. . . . The workingwoman as a person, with her peculiar emotions, desires, and views of life, has been admirably shown by Miss Hamilton in "Diana of Dobson's." . . . But the

field is barely opened yet; and hundreds of the professions occupied by women are still awaiting their dramatist. So far indeed educated working-women have hardly been touched. . . . There are whole classes of women—from the university lecturer to the elementary school teacher—who have never been made the subject of a dramatic study, and yet what a wealth of fascinating material is there. A serious or satirical play—but written by some one of real, personal knowledge—dealing with a women's college at Oxford or Cambridge—must be for many of us a long-felt want.

There is another side of woman's life that has been unaccountably neglected, and that is women's friendships with women. Time was when it was asserted there was no such thing, and that this was a sign of the inferiority of the sex. But nowadays many examples are to be found of women spending the best years of their lives together and co-operating in various activities. Hitherto, however, no imaginative writer, save George Meredith, has given a picture of one of these profound intimacies.

These are a few of the less-hackneyed points of view from which, thinks the *Englishwoman* writer, the modern dramatist might advantageously consider women; "leaving to the old-fashioned that familiar and rather tedious little love-affair which for so many years has been asserted to be 'woman's whole existence.'"

WHAT IS OUR NEW POETRY TO BE?

AT least five notable American poets alive to-day, and not one of them a great poet—such is the estimate put forth by Mr. James Oppenheim in his paper on "The New Poetry," in the spring number of *Poet Lore*. These men, he says, "have power, real power; they utter real thought with real passion and real melody. Their expression has finality; their technic is excellent. But we do not read them as we read our poets—they are skimmed or skipped, and have no part in our national life."

"Instinctively we deny them greatness and refuse to be led by them." He thinks that the five poets, if asked for reasons, would probably lay the blame on the times; but that the truth of the matter is, "that the modern spirit demands science in all things—the seen and the unseen; the ordered and chaotic; the simple and the intangible. We must subject poetry to analysis and to the theory of evolution." Mr. Oppenheim cites, with much elaboration, the theory of Sidney

Lanier, "that a poem is a musical composition in which definite sounds (words) are substituted for indefinite sounds"; and, coming back to the poetry of the five poets, he finds, strangely enough, that their poetry meets this definition. "Wherein, then, does it fail?" he asks. "It fails not because it is not music, but because of its kind of music." In judging a poem we must apply the theory of evolution not to the thought alone, but to the music as well. Mr. Oppenheim traces a similarity between the history of the evolution of music and of the music in poetry.

In music the simple compositions of the ancients and the medievals evolved into the vast complexities, the tremendous harmonies of the Italian and French and German schools. Then suddenly there was a leap forward through Wagner, a break with the past, a music so new that the ear had to be schooled to it, a music so real that the trained ear felt that hitherto there had been no music so great. When we speak of modern music we mean Wagnerian music.

As with music, so with poetry. Every poet brings us a new music—the music of a new age. To quote Mr. Oppenheim further:

But from Shakespeare to Tennyson the music has a mild, regular evolution, and belongs to the old order. And then came Walt Whitman, the first of the modern poets. Shakespeare was of the aristocrats, the court of kings; Milton was of the pomp of the church; Pope was of the polished drawing-room; Tennyson was of the cloistral university, but Walt Whitman was, like Wagner, of the modern and all it implies, all its noise, its divine disorder, its machines, its new vision, its democratic fires. Is it any wonder, then, that his poetry represents a complete break with the past? Is it any wonder that to ears untrained it sounded like insane discords, even as Wagner's music did? But as the ear became trained it found something in Whitman that superseded all the poetry of the past—it found that something which the modern spirit craves—*i. e.*, self-expression. Put Whitman and his age side by side and they will be found to complement each other: they are inseparable.

Thus it is clear why the five poets have failed. When their *music* is examined it is found to be evolved merely from Tennyson and Keats, Shelley and Shakespeare.

In all music the great break has occurred; we have a new world and a new music; we must build on Wagner and Whitman. This does not mean that we must repeat Wagner and Whitman. Their age, too, has passed. A new age is upon us. But as Shakespeare and Tennyson belong broadly to one slow-moving period, so do we of to-day with Wagner and Whitman belong to that period

that broadly we may call the Modern. Hence, the new poetry can be no echo of Whitman: it must be a step beyond him, and even as the modern age is beginning to crystallize, to tend more toward harmony and order, so too must our poetry tend to be more ordered, more compact, with more rigid structure. This does not mean that it may be perfect. Perfection is the sign of death—Tennyson's poetry sounded the knell of the old order—and our poetry cannot be perfect, however much the sensitive ear, still echoing Shakespeare and Keats, might abstractly desire it. It must be one with this age; it must be the new music and not the old. Who could write of the building of the skyscraper in a courtly or monastic or scholarly style? In order that man in relation to his skyscraper be expressed, must we not hear the thump of the air-hammer on the red-hot rivets, must we not hear the roar of the gale as it twangs the steel strings of the skeleton, must we not feel the daring of the men who walk the two-foot beam five hundred feet from the street below? And must not the noise and confusion, the stir and color of a modern city be felt like an undertone? In short, must not the poetry of to-day have rough edges, strong music, concise vigor, daring technic?

What shall this new poetry be? What shall it not be? It may be a composition employing one meter throughout—it may be a composition blending line by line all or many meters. Whitman smashed the old molds. He wrote each line as the thought and mood of it worked out in music. That is—he based his poems, not on the stanza, but on the line. Each line had its own "curve," its thought and mood demanded a certain rhythm, a certain melody. That Whitman failed in such an act of utter creation is evident. But that to-day we may advance a step farther, furnished as we are with the results of his experiments, is also evident.

THE IBSEN MYTH ANALYZED

"THE characters in Ibsen's dramas," Maximilian Harden writes somewhere, "do not as a rule say what they think. Ibsen carefully constructs his dialogues according to the following plan: 'What would a given person in a given situation say in order to conceal his thought?'" This observation is not remarkable coming from a man who has always done his best to discredit the greatest literary productions of our age, and sneer away our most advanced thought. But in the case of Ibsen we find his dictum quoted with thorough assent by a man like Otto Ernst, one of Germany's most genial and popular authors and a mild, generous critic, absolutely devoid of the itch for sensationalism. It is a common opinion of Ibsen, and, as Edwin Björkman says, one frequently held by "the very men who feel most keenly that he has a message in store for them."

It is to dispel this idea of Ibsen, the idea that the Norwegian dramatist has left a mass

of riddles for the ingenious professors to unravel, that Edwin Björkman wrote "The Ibsen Myth," published in the May number of the *Forum*. It is a significant essay. On reading it one feels he is in the presence of a new literary force in America, and involuntarily asks himself, "Are we at last going to have real literary criticism in our country?"

To Björkman, a modern man, conscious of what modernity means, and conscious also of the new "life forces" which work in and through the modern man, there is nothing obscure, nothing cryptic in Ibsen's dramas. For Ibsen, he says, merely gave voice to those new "life forces" which he instinctively, not yet consciously, felt were working in modern mankind. By the new "life forces," Björkman means the perfective instincts as opposed to the mere preservative instincts—the perfective instincts which are coming to play a more and more dominant rôle in the life and progress of the individual and the human race.

Dividing the human instincts roughly into four categories, which he calls the Will to Live, the Will to Love, the Will to Do, and the Will to Rule, he says:

The two preservative instincts have long been recognized, and it is common among scientists and philosophers to lead our entire being, with all its crudest and subtlest activities, back to hunger and desire. But when life has been secured and love has had its hour, there remains in a wholesome organism, under normal conditions, a surplus of unspent energy. The higher up an organism stands on the ladder of life, the greater is that surplus, and the more striking is the use made of it. To me it represents life's most precious asset. For out of it comes the energy which the perfective instincts transform into growth, progress, evolution. It is principally for the sake of that surplus and what life can do with it that man has to live and love.

Ibsen's preoccupation with these new forces in individual and social life is what renders his works so puzzling to a large part of the public, says Björkman. They themselves have not yet reached that stage of social and intellectual evolution.

The main cause of Ibsen's supposed obscurity lies, as I see it, in his intuitive realization of an evolutionary trend from mere preservation to increasing perfection as life's more essential purpose. He felt that a change had come over mankind, and he concluded that neither the primary instincts nor the more primitive forms of the perfective forces would remain capable of engrossing man's whole existence. And because he saw and pictured the struggle of the Will to Do and the Will to Rule to establish themselves on an equal basis with the preservative instincts as compelling motives in human life, he made his men and women say and do things which to many readers, if not to most, could only seem preposterously unreal.

Even at this late day the average man fears whatever is new. And he remains self-centered to the extent of expecting everybody else to be like himself in everything. To an overwhelming degree he is still moved and checked by the earlier and less subtle instincts. For this reason he expects to see people—on the stage as well as in reality—care most of all for life itself. Secondly, he expects to see them fighting ruthlessly for the male or female they want—just as the lion pursues the lioness, and as the bucks fight among themselves for the does. He has learned that, under some circumstances, the Will to Love may overshadow the Will to Live—that when people have been “driven beyond themselves” by being “crossed in love,” they grow capable of many strange doings, such as the risking and taking of their own lives.

This average man of ours is at a loss to understand Ibsen's characters because he is a stranger to the motives that impel them—motives that have become clearly potent only under the pressure of recent conditions, and that are still decidedly potent only to a far advanced minority. It will be all but impossible to convince him that the ultimate reason behind Hedda's desperate act is not her hopeless love for Eilert Lövborg. And the possibility of her departing voluntarily from life just to

escape unbearable boredom would to him seem unspeakably ridiculous, could such a possibility enter his mind at all. For ennui, to quote Jean Marie Guyau, “is in man a sign of superiority—of fecundity of will.”

Ibsen's grip on the “perfective instincts,” continues this writer, was, on the whole, intuitive rather than reasoned out.

He saw and pictured the results of their activities rather than those activities themselves. But the secret of art's power to move and to change us lies just in the fact that it presents ideas and truths and tendencies in their application to concrete being—that it shows them at work, so to speak. Outside of poetry, we have to deal with them as pale, bloodless phantoms, created by our minds in forms little more tangible than our dreams. In art we find them clothed in flesh and blood; we find them wearing the faces and using the voices of our dearest and nearest; and thus we are able to see them. And seeing, we realize what they imply and lead to, in the future as well as in the present. It was thus that Ibsen pictured the motives and impulses on which modern man's everyday life is more and more beginning to hinge; and it was for this reason that he was able to picture them with a fidelity and power which could not have been surpassed by any scientific formulation.

According to Björkman, therefore, the prevailing notion that Ibsen deliberately set out to confound the public understanding is absolutely baseless.

Fond as Ibsen was of clothing his sallies against sham and humbug and shallow indifference in the guise of subtlest sarcasm, this inclination was always subordinate to a sincerity that could rest satisfied with no expression falling short of the greatest attainable clearness. Above all other motives or tendencies actuating him stood his unrelenting sense of duty as an artist. And the logical outgrowth of his attitude was a passionate craving for understanding as the highest reward that could be reaped by the artist. Success, praise, renown, these were to him little more than the obvious dues of his endeavor. In a sympathetic comprehension, making a complete fellowship of soul between artist and reader, he saw the one truly satisfactory compensation for the labors of creative genius. In the lack of it he saw supreme misfortune.

Hence what is required to understand Ibsen is not ingenuity in solving riddles, but knowledge of that life which the most advanced in society are already living and which is gradually coming to embrace a larger and larger number.

Ibsen never purposely manufactured riddles. He never desired to be, or to be found, obscure. But to reach the heart of his message, it will not suffice that we spend our time brooding over his words or delving into his personal life. Instead we must school ourselves in the comprehension of life—in the knowledge not only of its superficial aspects, but of its deeper and deepest truths. To know Ibsen better, we must know life itself better.

WOMAN'S FASHIONS AND THE SLAUGHTER OF ANIMALS

HOW long will the inordinate demand for furs and feathers necessitate the sacrifice of animals? Dr. Friedrich Knauer, the Austrian naturalist and writer, and founder and director of the Vienna Tiergarten, discusses the various phases of this subject in a recent issue of the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna). He points out how the interests of the merchants concerned and of those having the preservation of animals at heart could be served at the same time by an understanding between them. To summarize his argument:

The merciless advance of civilization steadily crowds out plant and animal life. The irrepressible march of human development passes relentlessly over the beauties of nature. Natural race extinction we cannot prevent, nor can we stem the tide of progress. But what we can do if we do not wish to incur the condemnation of future ages is to combat with energy, before it is too late, the "irrational persecution and exploitation of free, useful animals." Last year's hunting exhibition and the debates of the second international hunting congress gave us a vivid idea of the immense economic importance of the trade in furs and feathers. The vast quantities of furs furnished by the Hudson Bay Company, by Russia and other parts of Europe must jeopardize the existence of the animals whose skins are most in demand. In some species the decline is already evident. While 3731 sea-otter skins were brought to the London market in 1888, their number reached only 269 in 1908; chinchilla skins, too, so much in demand, dropped from 58,234 in 1908 to 24,085 in 1909. The steady persecution of the chinchilla has decimated them and driven masses of them into the inaccessible mountain haunts.

The same is the case with birds of plumage, particularly the egrets.

A few decades ago these inhabited the cane swamps of southern Hungary and certain sections of Austria in great numbers. When aigrettes came into vogue the hunters speedily exterminated the birds. Then they turned to the forests on the lower Mississippi, in Mississippi and Louisiana. The great Paris firms established agencies in the ports of these States and bought up all the aigrettes. Of the birds, estimated at three millions, soon there was but a scant remnant left, which, now under protection, are again increasing. The hunters transferred their activities to the watered sections of South America and found rich prey. In Venezuela alone over a million and a half egrets were killed in 1898; ten years later they could secure only about 258,000.

The great vogue of furs and feathers, continues this Austrian writer, naturally caused an immense rise in the price of those articles; and this increase in gain served as an added

incitement to hunt the game to the utmost limits.

Even if the hunter and merchant can not be so greatly blamed, as long as there are no injunctions against it, for exploiting this field to its bounds (not stopping to consider that they are thus undermining the future of their trade), the extravagant use of furs and plumes demanded by fashion should be most severely censured and vigorously combated. This abuse of style is bitterly fought by lovers of animals, and various women's societies have joined the good cause. The Paris *Société pour la protection des animaux* complained, after a careful investigation, that last year, owing to the Chantecler style, the wholesale destruction of animals exceeded anything in the past, involving a sacrifice of 300,000,000 creatures. In the United States the Audubon Society is energetically and successfully combating the massacre of various species of birds. Mr. Roosevelt addressed a special letter to that society upon the aigrette question, in which, in his own and his wife's name, he expressed his sympathy with its efforts to prohibit the sale and wearing of those feathers. Consequent upon a report regarding egrets submitted by the Duchess of Portland to the Dowager Queen Alexandra, the latter replied that she authorized the Duchess to use her name in any way that would promote the protection of those birds, adding that she herself never used aigrettes.

Dealers in feathers, replying to these charges, indignantly protest against the accusations of cruelty, saying that the trade does not need rare birds, but only such as the market may be amply and steadily supplied with.

There is no species, they claim, whose plumage played a rôle in fashion, that has been exterminated; nearly all that has been said regarding the cruelty in securing aigrettes belongs to the realm of fancy, etc. However it may be with these conflicting statements, some charges of the dealers cannot be dismissed offhand. They point out, for example, that the interdict against exporting green parrots—which are destructive to agriculture—from India, has made the peasants still poorer than they were. Without entering into the protective laws and the protests raised against them, on one point there can be no doubt—that the battle now being waged against the fashions can result successfully only if the lovers of nature on the one side and dealers in furs and feathers on the other arrive at a reasonable compromise. It is quite inadmissible and impracticable simply to forbid the hunt for fur- and feather-bearing animals. We should bear in mind what a great economic question, how many industries, that trade involves. From Cape Colony alone, for example, ostrich feathers valued at over two million pounds sterling were exported in 1909. We see how in the free state the hunting and survival of wild game may be united. Why should not a *modus vivendi* be reached in the exploitation of our

furred and feathered animals? When the traders recognize that it is to their interest to maintain the source of such valuable income the proper measures will no doubt be adopted. The various fur-bearing and feathered animals will be given the same respite during the breeding season that our wild game have long since enjoyed. Efforts will be made, and doubtless with success, to breed different valuable species of such creatures upon great farms fitted up for the purpose, in the way so eminently successful in the case of the African ostrich. Just as these farms—which are able to

satisfy the constantly growing demand for ostrich plumes—have been the salvation of the free ostrich, the danger of exterminating other animal species may be averted by like means. That much may be accomplished by prohibition is shown in the case of the Behring Sea seals, which furnish us with the valuable sealskin. These fine animals would, like so many other fur-bearing seals, be on the brink of destruction, had not the countries concerned agreed to limit their capture to about 100,000, thus securing the fur trade an adequate annual supply.

A NEW METHOD FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF CRIMINALS

THE methods now in use by which notorious criminals may be identified, involving measurements of the head, comparison of finger-prints, etc., are unquestionably extremely ingenious and reasonably sure; but it is also true that they involve a vast amount of clerical labor and correspondence before the world at large is supplied with information sufficient to justify an arrest at a distance from the place where the measurements have been made and recorded. Thus, as a rule, it is only the large cities that can supply one another with the means for the identification of criminals who may be at large. Dr. Icard, in the *Archives d'Anthropologie Criminelle*, has recently pointed out a way by which a suspicious character may properly be held to await more thorough investigation. Comparing present-day methods with those of times past, he says:

Our fathers were more expeditious and also more practical: they marked dangerous criminals with a hot iron. This procedure attained the end sought in a sure way, and the criminal thus marked could not, in case he relapsed into evil ways, deny his record, for he carried it with him imprinted on his skin. But the method of the hot iron has come to be regarded as brutal, and has disappeared before the advance of a more humane civilization. When, in 1832, branding was abolished in France, it was proposed to replace it by tattooing a small mark upon some definite part of the body usually covered. This idea has, more recently, been revived in Germany. All such proposals, however, have been made in vain, and it is not believed necessary to allow legal tattooing, although, as Liersch observes, this special mark would have been the most valuable of means of identification and would almost have dispensed with writing out the criminal record and the points upon which the usual identification depended. The same objection is made to tattooing as to branding: the too noticeable evidence and the permanence of a mark which denotes infamy for the rest of the days of the one who bears it.

The procedure which I now submit to your consideration seems to me to possess all the advantages of legal tattooing, without having the

objection which renders the latter impracticable. It consists in injecting under the skin a certain amount of paraffin, so as to produce a slight lump. This little swelling, without changing appreciably the appearance of the skin, will remain unnoticed by the uninitiated, and, in a case where by chance it may be observed, would pass for a small cyst, or callous spot or wen of some sort, whose true origin would not be suspected. The points on the skin chosen for the injection would vary according to the nature of the crime or evil habit, and also in accordance with the gravity of the danger with which the criminal threatens society. For example, it might prove convenient to choose the inner edge of the right shoulder blade to mark professional thieves. This limited area could then be divided into three parts: the upper for the most dangerous thieves, the middle for the average, and the lower for the least dangerous. Suppose a person arrested under suspicion of theft: it would be easy for a police official to decide if the individual he has in hand is really an old offender, and, in such case, to what extent he is dangerous. It would only be necessary to run the finger down the inner edge of the right shoulder blade: if the tell-tale lump is there, the official would have proof that the person under arrest had been, at least, a convicted thief, and the position of the mark would give some idea of the seriousness of his criminality.

Dr. Icard then shows that the mark is indelible, differing somewhat in character according to the condition of the paraffin when injected. Used warm and in a fluid state, the paraffin is completely absorbed after two years, leaving hardened tissue like a scar. Injected cold and softened by mere pressure, it is not absorbed, but in process of time becomes encysted. In either case the result is the same to superficial examination. The lump is permanent; it is possible to cut out the paraffin, but this would leave an equally tell-tale scar. Yet the author insists that the fact that the mark is one to be recognized only by the initiated, does away with the objection that it would serve to degrade its bearer in the eyes of the world at large.

In concluding, Dr. Icard finds fault with many well-intentioned people who really in-

terfere with the course of justice and set at naught the means we have to protect society against criminals, through a foolish sentimentalism; and adds: "Certain classes of workingmen may be recognized by the rapid exhaustion of their bodily strength, by their premature old age. Since we are so severe upon honest and useful toilers, why should we be so full of regard for criminals? Every workingman carries with him the mark of his trade: on examination of parts of their bodies, we can pick out a cobbler, a carpenter, a tailor, etc. Why should criminals escape this general law of trades, and not be the bearers also of the mark of their profession?"

THE MUNICIPAL ACTIVITY OF ONE GERMAN CITY

THE problems offered by the growth of cities are being more and more considered both here and abroad. It is chiefly in some European countries, however, that serious and consecutive efforts have been made to find a practical solution of them. A notable instance of this is the course pursued by the municipality of Ulm, in Würtemberg. Here the administration has acquired, from time to time, large tracts of land in outlying parts of the city, reserving a considerable portion for parks, water-works, electric plants, etc., and selling or leasing the remainder to industrial enterprises or for the erection of private dwellings. An interesting account of the results so far attained is given by Herr Heinrich von Wagner in the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich).

One of the most usual reproaches cast upon the movement to reform the prevailing condition of land ownership by municipal ownership, he says, is that the community itself embarks in land speculation and thus becomes answerable for an abnormal increase of land values. This may occur here and there, but wherever the administration of a community is animated by a proper sense of social responsibility, there can be no such misuse of the communal lands.

This writer asserts that the legitimate profit secured by the city of Ulm from the purchase and sale of land has given to the municipal treasury a much larger share of the "unearned increment" than has been obtained by other German cities from special taxes imposed upon this. As a result of transactions extending over a period of fifteen years, Ulm has realized profits consisting of a million marks in money and about 940 acres of unincumbered land, producing an annual rental of seventy thousand marks. It is also noted that the rate of taxation in Ulm is lower than that of any other city in Würtemberg.

A most important result due to the carry-

ing out of this policy concerns the extension of Ulm's water supply. By the timely acquisition of a certain tract of land before its importance became apparent, the city was able to sink wells on its own property, whereas, had the land been left in private hands, a large sum would have had to be paid for it when it was required. Through its land ownership the city has also been better able to assure the construction of buildings satisfying architectural and hygienic requirements than would have been possible if trusting only to municipal regulations. In all contracts for the sale of municipal lands the municipality binds the purchaser, under penalty of substantial damages, to erect no building failing to conform to the legal stipulations as to interior construction or exterior form.

The favorable effects of the temporary or permanent ownership of land by the community in the distribution of population, and the advantages the city is able to give those who buy or lease its lands are thus stated by Herr Wagner:

When, as in the case of Ulm, the community has assumed control over the greater part of the land available for building operations, it is in a position to concentrate this activity in these tracts where the laying out of streets appears either desirable or necessary. In Ulm, so far, the owner of a building lot facing a street has only had to contribute a moderate sum toward its construction, and if the street traverses his property an indemnity of 2.50 marks for each square meter ceded for this purpose has been awarded. He has not had to contribute toward the construction of sewers, gas mains, etc., but has only been required to pay half the expense of providing permanent sidewalks. According to the building code prevailing in Würtemberg, single buildings, or groups of buildings, may be erected in any part of a community, without restriction, and when they are completed those engaged in the undertaking will not rest until they have induced the authorities to lay out the requisite streets with all that appertains to them. What a heavy burden results for the community, in the interest of a few individuals, is clear enough, and just as evident are the advantages accruing to a municipality when it is in a

position to prescribe the aim and direction for the development of building operations.

As a general rule the city lands are disposed of at their current or market price, but more favorable terms are accorded to workmen or employees for whom the city builds homes which are sold on exceedingly liberal conditions, a payment of ten per cent. sufficing to secure title. Sites have also been sold to benevolent foundations at exceptionally low figures, and industrial enterprises have some-

times been similarly favored, in order to induce their settlement in Ulm. In many of these cases, to prevent a speculative resale of the property, the city has reserved the right of repurchase for a term of years, or indefinitely.

While the strange prejudice against socialistic legislation that still exists among the majority of our citizens may serve to discourage any initiative in the United States of the policy outlined above, this need not prevent us from admitting that it has some merits.

PUBLIC HYGIENE AND THE STREETS

PROBABLY those who have noted in our city street-cars the somewhat ferocious prohibition of spitting upon the floor, have often wondered whether in European cities anything at all similar was to be encountered, or whether it is Americans only who breathe such dire threats against what has come to be regarded as a characteristically American vice. Are, too, American cities the only ones where the dust-nuisance has assumed great proportions? Are European municipalities able really to cope with these dangers to the public health, and, if so, can we learn from them to our advantage?

An article in a recent number of *Cosmos* describes conditions as they exist, in the opinion of the writer, in Paris, and contains references to the methods employed in various cities, and to those that should be adopted, in the interest of public hygiene. He says:

It is necessary to safeguard the condition of the streets; this is a matter of esthetics as well as of public health. They should be swept and sprinkled; filth must not be allowed to lie where it produces dust charged with germs of disease. The harmful rôle of germ-laden dust is to-day well known: circulars, printed notices and illustrated post-cards remind the public that tuberculosis is often transmitted by expectoration dried and converted into dust. We are warned not to spit on the ground, and this warning is emphasized in railway stations, in omnibuses and in public places. What is a matter of warning with us has the force of law in many foreign cities. A great number of these municipalities have their streets, tramways, stations and public buildings provided with notices on paper or enameled iron which inform the passer-by of the penalty to which he subjects himself in spitting on the ground. The fine is large enough to compel one to be careful. Some of the figures collected by M. Blanchard are then quoted. In Austria fines imposed upon those who spit upon the pavement range from two to two hundred crowns (40 cents to \$40), and imprisonment for from six hours to fourteen days may be added. In order that all may take warning, the notices

are printed in several languages. Liverpool imposes a fine of forty shillings (\$10) upon anyone who spits in a tram-car.

In New York, Jules Huret has remarked upon a notice in the street-cars, which he translates thus: "Spitting on the floor of cars is forbidden under a penalty of \$500 fine or of imprisonment for one year, or of both of these. By order of the Board of Health." This is enough to show with what severity punishment is bestowed upon those who spit on the ground in public places in those free countries that call themselves Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. No one dreams of complaining; everyone submits to these regulations.

"And yet,—as the author to whom we are indebted for these notes, remarks—"there is, in the United States, real merit in those who do not spit in the street, so prevalent is the practice of chewing tobacco or gum. At the club, in hotels, in offices, the Yankee makes up for it: monumental spittcons—generally of polished brass, like a row of Dutch saucepans,—occupy the place of honor in the middle of the room. Jets of saliva flash through the air, from all sorts of distances, to fall with marvelous precision in these works of art, whose shape often reminds one of the productions of Greco-Roman faïence."

"Dr. L. M." then turns from mankind to consider the harm done by animals in the streets. He deals gently with the horse, having apparently a sentimental attachment for that useful quadruped, slowly but surely disappearing from the streets of large cities. For the town dog he has no use, and charges him with the dissemination of a formidable list of unattractive complaints. The records of the Paris hospitals support his contention that widespread harm is done through the scattering of dust containing disease germs contained in the excreta of dogs. "Suits should be entered against the owners of the dogs that befoul the streets. Why should we not go further and tax heavily the house-

dog, which corresponds to no domestic or social need, and even bring about its entire removal, in large cities at all events, because of its unhealthfulness?" We can hardly imagine a person of "Dr. L. M.'s" opinions becoming very popular in Paris,—or even, for that matter, in New York!

Our author finally considers the means by which, unnecessarily, dust is scattered about and carried into houses;—and now women-kind have their turn. "In that connection, move against trailing skirts. In the United States all women wear short skirts, clearing the ground. Trailing skirts have the disadvantage of stirring up the dust and scattering in the air the innumerable microbes contained in it. War is being made upon this unsanitary fashion and various municipalities are enjoining upon women to wear short skirts." This is especially the case, according to "Dr. L. M.," among the Continental

health resorts. Thus, at Abbazia, the entrances to the enclosure bear this notice: "Ladies are hereby earnestly requested, in order to prevent unhealthful dissemination of dust, to wear no trained dresses upon the Promenade.—The Management."

At Nordhausen and at Nuremberg the wearing of trained dresses upon the street is forbidden by the police. At Ems and at Bad Neuheim, the notices follow in general the form of that at Abbazia.

The result of these measures, mandatory or not, is everywhere the same: the trained dress has entirely disappeared. Must we, as M. Blanchard declares, compel the Prefect of Police to issue an order proscribing the wearing of trained dresses in the streets of Paris? That is perhaps a good deal to ask. The current fashion conforms to the demands of hygiene if not to those of beauty. "Hobble" skirts and "trouser-skirts" do not stir up the dust. Fashions are more potent than laws. Let us credit the present style with a regard for hygiene and the health of others.

THE WORK OF THE SMALL COLLEGE

EDUCATIONISTS and laymen alike will read with interest Mr. E. Parmalee Prentice's paper in the current *Harper's* entitled "The New Opportunity of the Small College." Quoting John Stuart Mill's remark, that "One of the greatest misfortunes in the education of a nation would be the establishment of uniformity under the name of unity," he maintains that the country is too large and the demands of society too complicated to be served by any single system of education. He continues:

There is room in this great country for institutions of every kind, and an increasing need that different colleges turn their attention in different directions. Moreover, the new system is beginning to disclose some defects. Classes are so large that there is comparatively little individual training, and at the same time the compensation of teachers is so low that the profession no longer draws into its ranks its due proportion of talent. While such conditions prevail it is inevitable that college and university work throughout the country should be marked as it is by lack of seriousness.

It is for these reasons that at Amherst, for example, the movement has arisen which seeks in some respects to return to the old purposes of education. History can be taught better than ever before. We have far ampler means for instruction in democracy and the principles of government, while the need for unyielding moral standards in public opinion was never greater.

It is purposed, therefore, that the first aim of the college shall be "to make the moral character of the student"; also to teach concentration and application, making the col-

lege work real as work in a business or profession is real; to give individual training of the best character; and to create an environment of vivid intellectual life, a current where yielding shall be easy and resistance hard." These aims it is believed may be achieved by the adoption of a definite policy outlined in four propositions:

1. That the instruction given at Amherst hereafter be a classical course made up according to the demands of modern scholarship, emphasizing strongly the literary and historical courses, and including thorough scientific courses so far as science is part of a liberal education.

2. That to raise the standard of instruction and for its influence upon the compensation of the teaching profession throughout the country the college adopt the deliberate policy to accept no gifts which involve increased expense, but to devote all its means to the indefinite increase of teachers' salaries.

3. That to secure individual instruction of the best character the number of students attending the college be limited.

4. And that to effectuate this limitation applicants for admission undergo some selective process—preferably, it is urged, by competitive examination.

In the four propositions given above is contained what is known as "the Amherst plan"—an effort to use a single college as an instrument for a wide public reform. At present there is no college in the country which does the work. Nevertheless the need for such an institution is a real one; and support should not be lacking in such a matter.

BRITAIN'S GROUNDLESS FOOD SCARE AND THE CANADIAN AGREEMENT

IT is too bad that British consumers should have been needlessly disturbed by the high-cost-of-living spectre, as a consequence of the proposed reciprocity agreement with Canada. The Tariff Reform Commission is largely to blame for the scare, it having published the following memorandum:

There appears to be a large area for an increase in Canadian exportation to the United States, and consequent diversion southward of Canadian food and agricultural products that now come to the United Kingdom. . . . One effect may be expected to be an increase in prices to the British consumer of those food and agricultural products.

Other assertions recently made with regard to the agreement are, that Canadian trade will be diverted from the East-and-West direction to the North-and-South; that Canadian railways will suffer because they will lose the "long haul"; and generally that the agreement will be bad for Britain and worse for Canada herself. In the *Westminster Review* Mr. E. Enever Todd exposes the fallacy of the view of the Tariff Reform Commission. There is, he says, an ill-founded but popular notion abroad that the American population will in the near future require more food supplies than America can grow herself. Now the fact is that the United States "can grow the farm products needed by a population more than three times as great as our country now contains." Only two-fifths of the total area of the United States has been taken up as farm land; and of this only one-half is under cultivation. The other half, or 384 million acres, awaits the plow. In addition, there are 75 million acres of swamp land to be drained, 40 million acres of desert to be irrigated, and a vast area of bush and wood land which may become available for cultivation.

Another thing to be remembered is, that our present yield of wheat is extremely low, being but 14 bushels per acre as against 28 in Germany and 32 in England. Recently a return has been made for the purpose of intensive cultivation to the Eastern plains; and proper management will double our average yield per acre. Further, the acreage under corn has increased by 18 per cent. in the last four years, and the production of wheat has increased by 59 per cent., whereas the population has increased by only 46 per cent. It is very unlikely, therefore, that the United States will import largely from

Canada. Canada herself has been making enormous advances in wheat-growing. In the next five years the yield should average 200 million bushels, leaving about 120 million bushels for export.

Mr. Todd cites from a report of Mr. A. T. Matthews, the London market reporter, to the English Board of Agriculture, with reference to the influence which the lowering of duties may have on the price of meat in the United Kingdom. Contrasting the relatively small amount of meat now coming to the United Kingdom from North America, compared with the large quantity from South America, Mr. Matthews says:

These relative quantities show us at a glance that any small temporary fluctuations in the supplies from North America would have but a small effect on our current market prices. . . . Every one points to the southern hemisphere as the center of gravity of our future sources of supply, and as being quite able to more than compensate the deficiency of the north, even if the available surplus of the States ceases altogether. But there is no expectation that the supplies from America will cease. Rather they will tend to increase. Canada is a better country for breeding and rearing than for fattening stock; and as the United States are at present extremely short of store cattle, the agreement will greatly increase the import of them from Canada, since the duties on cattle are to be abolished. In this way, the aggregate production of States beef may be increased to a much larger extent than is supposed possible, and the export trade in beef to Britain be indefinitely prolonged. There is, therefore, no prospect of a rise in the price of beef in the United Kingdom owing to the reciprocity agreement.

The other classes of food affected by the agreement, and the price of which it is asserted will be raised to the British consumer are: (1) bacon, hams, and pork, and (2) dairy produce. Of the former, Canada in 1909 supplied to the United Kingdom more than one-fifth of the total importation. Now, in 1910 Canada imported from the United States \$1,795,000 worth of bacon, hams, and pork, and it is probable that her importation will largely increase as a result of the agreement. If so, she will have all the more for export to the United Kingdom.

With regard to dairy produce, neither American nor Canadian butter figures in England's importations, but as concerns cheese Britain depends for more than half her supply on the product of Canada. In the case of cream, Canada will be well able to supply both America and England.

A CANADIAN VIEW OF THE RECIPROCITY AGREEMENT

IF the Canadian Government should succeed in passing its proposed measure for reciprocity with the United States, it will be in the face of widespread, very determined, and vigorously prosecuted opposition. By large majorities the legislatures of New Brunswick, British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario have passed resolutions strongly disapproving it; Canadian boards of trade have denounced it; banking, business, transport, and industrial interests have declared themselves against it; fruit-growers' associations and market-gardeners from east to west in the Dominion have asserted that they "have no use" for it. In the Canadian Parliament the United Liberal-Conservative party is fighting "tooth and nail" against the measure, and three of the strongest supporters of the Government have broken away on this issue. How will the struggle end? Writing in the *North American Review*, the Hon. George E. Foster, M.P., ex-Minister of Finance, whose speech in the Dominion Parliament on the subject created such a deep impression, voices his belief that the country will reject it. Some of the reasons on which that belief is based are the following:

First, the proposal comes too late. Hereupon Mr. Foster comments:

For half a century beginning with 1850 Canada sought for reciprocal trade with the United States. . . . She met with little sympathy and many rebuffs. The Elgin treaty of 1854 was no sooner concluded than dissatisfaction began to be manifested by the United States, which renounced it at the earliest opportunity. . . . Many negotiations with Washington, extending from 1866 to 1898, resulted in failure. Canada was thrown back upon her own resources, each rebuff acting as a challenge to her self-respect and an impulse to self-development. The answer to the abrogation of the Elgin treaty was the confederation of the disconnected provinces, the evolution of a strong Canadian ideal, and the birth of a new nation. . . . Canada gradually awoke to the realization of her wonderful natural resources and splendid possibilities. Her great needs were population and capital; and she set to work to obtain these. . . . She has succeeded beyond her most sanguine expectations. Under a moderate protective tariff, an industrial system has been developed which has reached an annual output of \$1,000,000,000, furnishes employment to 435,000 workmen, and distributes an annual wage of \$250,000,000. A magnificent system of railways and improved waterways has been created. . . . Out of the trackless prairie solitudes of forty years ago three great provinces have been carved. . . . Canada's population, now 8,000,000, will probably reach 50,000,000 by the middle of the present century. Her foreign trade, in 1867 \$130,000,000, is now \$728,000,000. . . . As yet but the fringe of her great natural resources has



HON. GEORGE E. FOSTER

(One of the foremost Canadian opponents of reciprocity)

been touched. . . . The foregoing explains why a proposal which forty, or even thirty years ago, would have been hailed with delight, fails to appeal to Canadians to-day.

A second reason is that the agreement narrows and restricts Canada's fiscal freedom. It comprises a stated list of articles, all of which are to be accepted or none. It is necessary, therefore, in estimating its desirability to strike a balance between its disadvantages and advantages. Some interests and sections of Canada would undoubtedly be injured by its adoption and some might be helped. The measure must be judged by its effect upon the whole country and all its interests. Brought to this test, Mr. Foster finds the proposed measure "undesirable and even dangerous." It would shift the base of a profitable production from Canada to the United States, diminish the volume of inter-provincial traffic, and retard the home development of the fruit industry.

The agreement is urged upon Canada on the ground that it opens to her farmers a market of 90,000,000 people. Says Mr. Foster:

A slight analysis serves to modify the strength of that appeal. How much of that 90,000,000

market is accessible to our surplus eggs, butter, cheese, fruits, vegetables, live stock, grain, and meat products? Distance and cost of transport cut out nine-tenths and more. . . . We do not forget that the same pact opens up the markets of Canada to the competition of twelve times as many producers whose seasonal and sectional surplus can be poured into the present home markets of our producers. Canada has found it necessary to maintain a reasonable all-around protection; to remove this from the farmers and fruit-growers and continue it to the other industries would be unfair to the former and would result in the destruction of the policy which has been approved by thirty years of great progress and prosperity. Canada is not prepared to take these chances yet.

Again, Canada is urged to accept the agreement in order to promote friendly feelings between her and the United States. To quote Mr. Foster:

Does the necessity exist? Never in the history of the two countries was there greater friendliness nor a warmer appreciation of each other. One by one the causes of friction have been eliminated. . . . No one will contend that free trade is essential to the continuance of friendly relations. But if there is any obligation upon either country to consider trade concessions, it surely rests with the United States. In 1910 Canada purchased from the United States \$223,000,000; the United States purchased from Canada only \$104,000,000. We

gave you free entry for \$98,000,000 worth of your products, and you gave us free entry for but \$33,000,000 of our goods.

Mr. Foster says, further, that it is well in considering a proposal to inquire what the other party is after. In this instance there is no difficulty in finding the answer.

Your newspaper men want cheaper pulp, your millers cheaper wheat, your packers cheaper stock, your railways more freight, your manufacturers cheaper raw material, and your consumers cheaper food. All these things you say Canada has for sale, and only the tariff stands in the way of your procuring them more cheaply. Then why do you not cut your tariff, which is the only one standing in the way? One single stroke of the Congressional pen would give you all you say you need. And yet you wait and insist upon reciprocity. This makes Canadians think there is something more than a desire for cheaper food supplies and raw materials behind this insistence. Else President Taft would not be talking about "the parting of the ways," nor Mr. Hill about the unique opportunity which presents itself for striking the deathblow to Imperial preference.

It is just this other thing that lies behind which makes Canadians thoughtful, inquiring, and cautious in regard to the proposed reciprocity agreement.

THE BUGBEAR OF JAPANESE INVASION

"DO our Pacific Coast defenses defend?" is the question, put into plain, matter-of-fact speech, discussed by Brigadier-General H. M. Chittenden in the *Pacific Monthly*, under the significant title "Government by Fright." On the other side of the Atlantic, the continual reference in the American press to the bugbear of Japanese invasion is regarded with surprise, as witness, for instance, the article printed in this section of the REVIEW for last month, giving the views of Baron Alexander von Siebold. In the opinion of this distinguished student of war, "everything points to a continuance of the friendly relations which have existed between the two nations for well-nigh fifty years, despite the baiting and scheming by the press and irresponsible persons, who are chiefly to blame for the unfortunate discordance." General Chittenden is of the same mind. He thinks Japan "is not likely to go to war without reasonable cause; and so long as the United States maintains a consistent policy of fair dealing with her it is difficult to see how there can arise any occasion for acute misunderstanding." But it has long been accepted as a sound maxim, that the best guar-

antee of peace is preparedness for war; and the General avers that the reason for his appearance in print is the "wholly unwarranted aspersion upon the large work already done by the Government to defend this [the Pacific] coast against invasion." His righteous indignation has been particularly aroused by the remarks of one of the after-dinner speakers at a banquet in San Francisco, to the following effect:

We have erected two systems of fortification [for the defense of Oregon and Washington]—one on Puget Sound and one at the mouth of the Columbia. These two systems of fortifications are just as useful as if their ramparts were made of cake and their guns were made of candy. An army landing for the seizure and capture of Washington and Oregon would not land within one hundred miles of either of these systems of fortification. . . . Not one single gun in place on the Golden Gate for the defense of the entrance to this city (San Francisco) could ever be used for the defense of the city. All of that money is wasted.

These remarks were, it seems, made by the author of a recent work, "The Valor of Ignorance," the whole tenor of which is "the same extravagant condemnation of the military policy of the United States," and in

which America "is held up to eternal obloquy unless she completely alters her habit, or becomes a dyed-in-the-wool military power." General Chittenden, in answer to the detractor, shows the relative situation on the Pacific Coast with and without the existing fortifications, which he has every reason to regard as efficient. Without them,

Puget Sound would lie wide open to instant occupation. . . . The navy-yard with its abundance of everything necessary to an enemy's fleet, the private drydocks, machine-shops, coal, and an abundance of supplies of all kinds which would go a long way toward sustaining an invading army and relieving it from its dependence upon home, would be lost to us at the very outset. Likewise, without the defenses on the Columbia, war vessels and transports of lighter draft could enter that river and the great emporium and crossroads at the mouth of the Willamette might fall almost without any opportunity to defend itself. . . . In the situation as it actually exists . . . neither Puget Sound nor the Columbia can be entered at all by a hostile fleet, until the fortifications are reduced.

The author and after-dinner speaker quoted by General Chittenden says, somewhat contradictorily, that Japan "would not land a force within a hundred miles of the fortifications," but "would land at Gray's Harbor," which is about forty-three miles from the forts on the north shore of the Columbia. That harbor, General Chittenden points out, is not in any desirable sense practicable for entrance to a fleet of transports.

The bar is uncertain and dangerous and of shallow depth. Many, if not most, of the transports could not cross it at all. No heavy warship would think of trying it. With small effort and short notice the narrow dredged channel that extends eighteen miles inland to Aberdeen could be completely blockaded. With any sort of expedition Gray's Harbor can be rendered inaccessible by water until a landing has been made outside, both shores of the bay occupied in force, and the channel cleared out.

But assuming, for the sake of argument, that Japan has mastered Gray's Harbor, her troubles will have but begun.

At Aberdeen she must cut loose from such ships as can get inside. She is in a country that could offer no subsistence to a large force—a country where wide maneuvering or the extensive use of cavalry or artillery is impracticable. In short, she must force her way virtually through a defile for fifty miles before she reaches the railroad north and south between Seattle and Portland, and until she has reached that point she has accomplished nothing which could be considered as having any decisive bearing on the campaign.

In California, from San Francisco south, the chances are, in General Chittenden's

judgment, more favorable to an invader. This on account of more and better landing-places, a more hospitable coast, a more practicable country to operate in, and a greater abundance of supplies outside the great cities. But here also the fortifications would compel a land campaign to capture the great towns. The defenses are "so strong that a hostile force simply would not attempt their reduction or passage." *But if they were not there!*

Then San Francisco would fall at the first blow. The great city . . . would be lost, and the conquest of California would be almost completed at the start. It is a very different thing to be compelled to land twenty or thirty miles from the city and fight a campaign to reach it with the chances of not reaching it at all, or only at enormous cost. Here again, any assumption that the enemy could reach and occupy the passes of the Sierras, except upon the further assumption of incredible supineness on the part of the United States, may be dismissed as unworthy of consideration.

The authority whom the General criticizes asserts that "within thirty days from the outbreak of war Japan could land on the Pacific Coast 200,000 men." General Chittenden replies that "there is nothing in all military history to justify any such claim." He believes Japan would strike nearer home. She would seize the Philippines, relying on the probable attempt to recapture them, and on her success in the naval battle which must necessarily be fought. Summing up the whole matter, General Chittenden delivers himself as follows:

In all this, one fact stands out above every other, and that is the supreme importance of the navy in the defense of this coast. With an adequate naval force we need have no fear. . . . The Panama Canal should be so fortified that passage back and forth can be kept free and uninterrupted to our ships and blocked to an enemy without our using any naval force for that purpose. . . . After the navy our next bulwark of defense is our sea-coast fortifications, which will enable us to hold the vital points on our coast while we are organizing to resist land attack. They are an invaluable adjunct of defense.

These fortifications, says General Chittenden, are enduring in character and are relatively inexpensive; and they are looked upon abroad as standing fully abreast of our navy in character and efficiency.

Back of both navy and fortifications are the mobile forces of the country which in any long test and with any serious mishap to the navy must be our main reliance. As to these forces, no military man can feel otherwise than that they are sadly deficient; not in quality but in numbers; but it is too much to say that they are hopelessly so.

HAWAII'S NEW RACE PRODUCT

A SORT of ethnological melting-pot" is the designation applied by Mr. J. Liddell Kelly in the *Westminster Review* to the United States Territory of Hawaii. Into this melting-pot have been cast many and diverse races—"the brown, the yellow, the copper-colored, and the olive-tinted, with a large admixture of white-brown people and the merest sprinkling of whites." The census of 1900 showed the constituent elements to be:

Japanese	61,115
Hawaiian	29,787
Chinese	25,762
Portuguese	15,675
Part-Hawaiian	7,848
American	7,283
British	1,730
German	1,154
Polynesian	653
Other foreigners	2,994
Total	154,001

The population has since grown to more than 210,000; but the proportion of whites is only about 8 per cent., and, owing chiefly to the fecundity of the Japanese, this is a diminishing ratio. For the year ending June 30, 1908, the total births in the Territory numbered 4593, of which the Japanese alone were 2445, while the combined American, British, and German were only 193. With this enormous preponderance of population it might reasonably be supposed that the Japanese would be the dominant type of the future on the Hawaiian Islands; but, according to Mr. Kelly, such a deduction would be an erroneous one. He says: "It is evident that the process of fusion will go on chiefly between the Hawaiians, the Chinese, and the Caucasians. The Japanese equation, should it ever operate, would be very powerful; but there is at present no indication that it will be even appreciably felt."

All over the islands the Japanese swarm, maintaining their national dress, religion, customs, and language. . . . They are heartily hated by the Hawaiians and Chinese, who never intermarry with them. The Japanese indeed show very little desire for racial intermixture. . . . They work cheaply; they undercut in trade. They have practically driven the Hawaiians from the fisheries; they are rapidly ousting them from the carrying and hack-driving businesses. As clerks, salesmen, artisans, waiters, etc., they are usurping places formerly held by white workers. They are everywhere, as a problem or a menace; but in the meantime they do not enter into the question of race fusion.

Caucasian blood was the first to leave its impress on the Hawaiians, the progeny of mixed marriages showing generally good physique and high intellectual powers, often marred, however, by a lack of moral fiber. Next came the Chinese, imported in large numbers to work on the plantations. Intermixture with these has been in every way most satisfactory. While the Caucasian-Hawaiians inherit very few of their white parents' virtues, the Chinese-Hawaiians combine the kindly, generous disposition of the Hawaiian race with the honesty, domesticity, perseverance, frugality, and business capacity of their Chinese progenitors. The Portuguese laboring class, which followed the Chinese, while cleanly and industrious, have an indifferent character for honesty. Then came the Japanese. To these must be added some Porto Rican laborers—not a success in any sense—and a sprinkling of almost every nation under the sun. The dominant product of all these constituent elements will be of the Chinese type. The native Hawaiians are evidently doomed. In 1778 they numbered 350,000; to-day they aggregate less than 30,000. Remembering that it is the race that is purest and longest established whose characteristics come to the front in any mixing of blood; that, with the possible exceptions of the Jewish and negro, the Chinese is more firmly established than any other; and that the Hawaiian is no more firmly fixed than any variety of the Caucasian, Mr. Kelly predicts the evolution of a new race on the islands—the Chinese-Hawaiian-Caucasian, which for the sake of brevity he calls the C. H. C. In regard to the characteristics of the C. H. C. he forecasts as follows:

So far as present indications go, a high quality of manhood and womanhood will result. Physically, the Hawaiian Islanders of the future will be rather over the medium height, with straight or wavy black hair, and light, olive complexion. The Hawaiian strain will give them ripe, sensuous lips, and large, lustrous brown eyes, while the Caucasian blend will add length to the nose and give a certain modicum of nerve and brain force. Their faces will have the curved features and the expressionless immobility of the Chinese; their frames will be supple and loose-jointed. They will be a graceful, careless, happy, but undemonstrative race, their emotions well under control, fond of music, art, and literature, but with little capacity for government or the management of large affairs. In various spheres the pure Caucasian will be prominent, as now. Americans will administer the government, build ships and railroads, manage the sugar and other plantations,

and own large property interests; but business concerns, domestic and other industries will be controlled by the new race, who will fill also nearly all official positions.

Mr. Kelly is emphatic in the assertion that it is idle to dream of Hawaii as "a white man's country." The "Americanization of Hawaii" has, he says, no chance of realization: the "Hawaiianization of Americans"

would be the net result of placing American farmers on the soil of this Territory. Even now, all the high offices in the gift of the people are held by Hawaiians or part-Hawaiians. Their deputies are white men, who have to knuckle under or quit the country. In the future this state of things will be accentuated. The good qualities of the future population will be largely inherited from the Chinese.

THE PROTECTION OF PARIS AGAINST INUNDATION

THE whole world takes an interest in the city of Paris, and the floods of the Seine in the winter of 1909-10 provoked sympathy among those who read of them. It is, therefore, to be assumed that an account of the projects under consideration which have for their object the prevention of similar disasters in the future, will excite interest among all readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It may be that the schemes here discussed will not be carried into effect; some still more imposing project of improvement may be considered advisable; yet a knowledge of the fundamental problem involved can hardly fail to be of value.

The city of Paris occupies both banks of the Seine a short distance below the junction of that river with the Marne. The winding courses of these rivers indicate at once the comparatively slight slope of the watershed and in general the lowness of their banks. Numerous canals exist for the purpose of shortening the actual distances for water traffic and of avoiding shoal parts of the rivers; but these canals are of comparatively small capacity and can hardly serve, as they at present exist, for any comprehensive scheme of improvement.

A few days after the terrible flood which in the month of January, 1910, devastated the city of Paris and its suburbs, a commission appointed by the Minister of the Interior was directed to investigate the causes of the disaster and to make a study of measures to be undertaken to prevent its recurrence.

The commission went immediately to work. It has published a voluminous report in which are described the methods which, in its opinion, promise to be most effective in shielding Paris and its suburbs from another invasion of the waters of the Seine. After a very thorough discussion of the various schemes which might be adopted, the commission has recommended that, to solve the

problem in a satisfactory way, these several improvements should be undertaken:

I. The construction, to the north of Paris, of a relief canal between the Marne and the Seine.

II. The deepening of the channel of the Seine between Suresnes and Bougival, with the reconstruction of the dams.

III. The widening of the south (left) arm of the Seine where it passes the island of La Cité.

The arguments by which the commission supports its recommendations are summarized in a recent number of *Cosmos*, from which much of this paper is abstracted.

I. The construction of a relief canal between the Marne and the Seine.

As might be expected the commission received a very large number of suggestions having to do with decreasing the volume of water which passes through Paris. Most of these emphasized the necessity for constructing a relief canal to pass around the capital. Granting this need, two projects stand forth from all the rest: (a) That of a cut-off to the south of Paris; and (b) that of a connection between the Marne at some distance above the city, and the Seine near Saint-Denis, passing around the outskirts of the capital on the north.

The cut-off by way of the south would be possible, but it presents serious difficulties. For example, it would be feasible to connect Port-à-l'Anglais with Issy-les-Moulineaux by means of a canal eleven kilometres (7 miles) long, of which about 5 miles would be in tunnel. By giving this canal sufficient size to convey 500 cubic metres (say 670 cubic yards) of water per second at the time of a flood such as that of 1910, there would be brought about a lowering of level of 1.25 metres (about 50 inches) at Port-à-l'Anglais and at the Pont de la Tournelle (*i. e.*, at the Ile de St. Louis). It will be remembered that



at this latter point the level of the water reached 8.42 metres on January 28, 1910. But the lowering of the flood level would be only 0.75 metre (30 inches) at the Pont Royal, and there would be a slight rise at the viaduct of Auteuil. As a result, the lowering of the water level above Paris would decrease the extent of the flooded region; the volume of water penned in would become less, and consequently the outflow would be greater during the period of rise. There would be a rise of river level at the outlet of the canal. On the Marne the lowering would begin at Bonneuil; it would amount to 0.45 metre (18 inches) at the lock of St. Maur, and to 1.25 metres (50 inches) at the junction of the Marne and the Seine.

The improvement upon the Marne would be very slight; it must be noted, too, that conditions along the banks below the city would be worse. The canal would, near its inlet and again near its outlet, pass through the lowlands of Ivry and Issy. These would be submerged in time of flood, as they have been in the past, and the structures by which railways and highways cross over the canal would be subject to injury and would themselves interfere seriously with the usefulness of the canal. The cost is estimated at \$32,000,000, and the commission believes the improvement secured would not justify such an expenditure.

In discussing a cut-off to the north of Paris, it must be borne in mind that, in the lower part of its course, the Marne is separated from the valley of the Seine to the north and west of Paris by a semicircular

range of hills extending from Villemomble to Annet, past Vaujours. Any waterway from the Marne to the Seine, north of Paris, must pierce this range, either by tunnel or by open cut; then, crossing the valleys of the Morée and the Molette, it would reach the Seine near Épinay. To pierce this range there are only two courses possible, if excessive cost is to be avoided: (a) that through the gap of Villemomble, and (b) that by way of the gap at Claye through which flows the Beuvronne. Above Claye the level rises higher and higher; no one would dream of digging a canal on that side. Before deciding upon the course for the projected cut-off, the commission laid down the necessary conditions:

When the water in the Marne reaches at the entrance to the canal the height attained in January, 1910, the new waterway must be capable of carrying away 670 cubic yards per second. Those in control must be able to regulate the flow all the way from nothing up to this quantity. When the outlet is closed, the entire discharge must be able to flow downstream. Navigation must be maintained on the Marne both above and below the entrance to the canal. Finally, boats must be able to navigate the canal at all times.

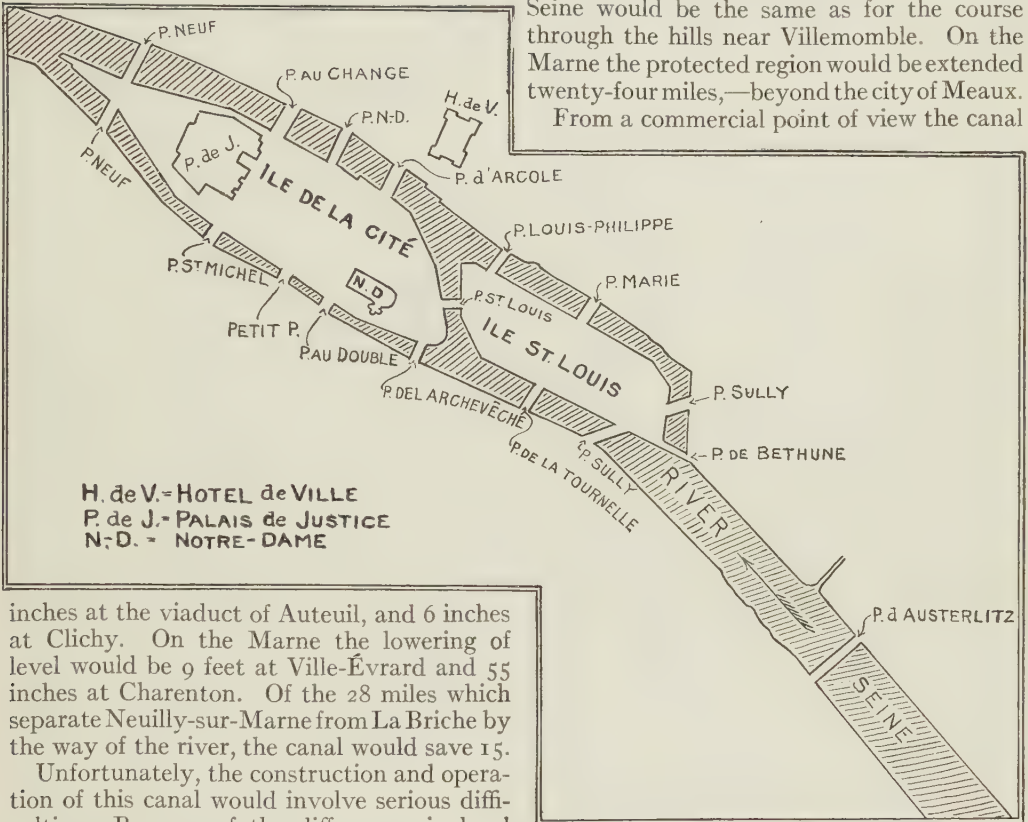
This being granted, three courses are possible—two by the gap of Villemomble, and one by way of the gap of Claye. Of the two former the commission has really considered but one: this leaves the Marne at Gournay, passes Ville-Evrard, cuts through the ridge of Villemomble by a three-mile tunnel, entering the valley of the Molette; then turns west near Bourget and reaches the Seine between

La Briche and Épinay. This canal would pass through a region far enough removed from Paris for the land-condemnation damages not to be too burdensome; its total length would be 13.5 miles. The cost of construction would amount to \$38,000,000. In the case of a flood like that of January, 1910, the lowering of the level of the Seine which it would bring about would amount to 19 inches at Ablon, 67 inches at the Pont National, 47

would maintain a navigable reach of over twenty-six miles up to Meaux. This dam would be operated in conjunction with one at the bridge of Annet. From Bourget to the Seine the cut-off is to be divided into a weir five miles long, and a series of reaches with a depth of 10.5 feet, separated by locks.

The cost of this second course would be \$34,000,000. From the standpoint of preventing floods, the improvement along the Seine would be the same as for the course through the hills near Villemomble. On the Marne the protected region would be extended twenty-four miles,—beyond the city of Meaux.

From a commercial point of view the canal



inches at the viaduct of Auteuil, and 6 inches at Clichy. On the Marne the lowering of level would be 9 feet at Ville-Évrard and 55 inches at Charenton. Of the 28 miles which separate Neuilly-sur-Marne from La Briche by the way of the river, the canal would save 15.

Unfortunately, the construction and operation of this canal would involve serious difficulties. Because of the differences in level through most of its course it would be sunk considerably below the surface. Connection with other canals would be difficult, except through the use of boat-lifts which would be costly to construct and to operate.

The second course,—by way of Claye,—although longer, is preferable. In this case the Marne water would enter the canal about half a mile above the bridge at Annet. The cut-off would ascend the valley of the Beuvronne and pass Claye; it would connect with the Canal of the Ourcq at Gressy, then run parallel with this canal as far as Sevran, where it would branch off toward the west, joining the other projected course in the valley of the Molette, to the east of Bourget. Near the latter place would be placed a dam which

presents great advantages. By its means the stream navigation of the lower Seine could be extended through Meaux over the eastern system of canals. Twenty miles would be saved in the journey from Meaux to La Briche. The narrow reaches in the canals of Chalifert and Chelles would be avoided, as well as the tunnel of St. Maur. Not sunk so low as would be a canal having its entrance at Ville-Évrard, the new navigable route would be of more service to the country traversed. The connection with the Canal of the Ourcq would be very easy. Indeed the relief-canal would provide a way to realize the idea of adapting the Marne to steam navigation between Meaux and Paris,—an improvement long since projected. From the standpoint

of the defense of Paris, the water course from Meaux to La Briche would probably be of great value.

II. The deepening of the Channel of the Seine between Suresnes and Bougival.

The commission recommends that this work be undertaken in order to prevent future flooding of the reaches above and below Clichy, as well as to enable the river below St. Denis to dispose of the discharge of the projected canal. Reconstruction of the dams is called for, as those at present in use,—part fixed, part movable,—tend to cause a deposit of sand in the river bed. An alternative, or additional, project,—the construction of a cut-off from Suresnes to Bougival, under the hill of St. Cloud, involving a tunnel nearly three miles in length,—is not advocated by the commission, for the reason that its great cost and questionable benefit render its present undertaking inadvisable. The cost of deepening the river from Suresnes to Bougival is reckoned at \$6,000,000.

III. The widening of the left (southern) arm of the Seine opposite the Ile de la Cité.

The commission advocates this work as supplementary to the other two projects. It would result in lowering the river level at the Pont de la Tournelle by about sixteen inches.

The width of the river within the city varies greatly. The commission estimates that a width of 190 yards would be sufficient, provided it be unobstructed. In passing the Ile de St. Louis a total width of much more than this amount is had, and at first sight this would appear ample; but the right (north) branch is shallow, seawalls and bridge piers project into the channel, and numerous

landings and floating structures impede the flow of the water, while market-boats moored during the winter along the quays decrease still more the capacity of this channel to do its share of the work. Hence most of the water passes through the south arm, which is only 140 yards wide. As a result, the stream rushes violently under the Pont de St. Louis and the Pont de l'Archevêché. As the passage south of La Cité is very narrow,—only 38 yards at the Petit Pont,—and that on the north side is but 80 yards across, a notable rise in the level occurs at this point. To remedy this situation two things are called for: the removal as far as possible of all obstructions, and,—as even this would not suffice,—the widening of one or both of the channels. Everything else apart, the logical plan would be the pushing back of the quay walls that confine the south arm, since that is, so to speak, the natural outlet, and at present is only about half as wide as the other. The character of the buildings upon the island,—the Cathedral of Notre-Dame, the Palais de Justice, etc.,—speaks against any encroachment upon its area, and the matter narrows down to the pushing back of the quay of the south bank, with the lengthening of the bridges to the Cité. This would necessitate the reconstruction through a distance of about 700 yards of the subway carrying the tracks of the Orleans Railway, and of much other work. The cost is estimated at \$4,400,000.

The three projects advocated by the commission would thus involve a total outlay of at least \$44,400,000. Still, this is not a very great amount, if by its employment Paris is to be protected from a repetition, or series of repetitions, of the disastrous flood of 1910.

A NOTABLE ART WORKSHOP—THE WERKSTÄTTE IN VIENNA

"A PRODUCTIVE society formed of artists and craftsmen with aims and ideals in common," is the description given by A. S. Levetus, in the *International Studio*, of that remarkably successful Viennese enterprise, the Wiener Werkstätte. This institution—for such it may now be properly termed—was founded in 1903 by Prof. Josef Hoffmann, Prof. Kolo Moser, and Herr Fritz Wärndorfer, "a man of culture with a leaning toward modern art, and a capitalist to boot," these three being joined later by Prof. C. O. Czeschka. Its aims have been announced by Professor Hoffmann to be as follows:

To form a close contact between the public and designers and craftsmen, by creating good and simple household effects, utility being the first principle, our strength to lie in the right proportions and right treatment of the material, decoration being introduced when practicable, but never forced or overloaded.

Of its financial organization we read:

It is registered as an unlimited liability company. Each member has the right of acquiring one share which costs two hundred kronen, and for which he may pay by ten equal monthly payments. He may also purchase others with the consent of the executive, but must pay for them in full at the time of purchase. The prices of shares can be raised only by the consent of the general assembly of

shareholders; they may only be disposed of on resignation of membership and then only to another member; for none but members of the Werkstätte may be shareholders.

There are workshops for goldsmithing, jewelry, and all kinds of metalwork, bookbinding, ivory and wood carving, and shops for dressmaking and millinery where models of art gowns and hats are fashioned. Cabinet-making, carpentry, and joinery are carried on; and arrangements are made for the production of ceramic articles, mosaics, textile designs, and many other works. There is, besides, an important architectural department. Of the morale of the craftsmen and of their environment Mr. Levetus writes in glowing terms.

All the workshops, it is needless to say, are excellently fitted up, every care being taken with regard to the arrangements for lighting and hygiene. They are remarkably clean, and flowers are cultivated to adorn them, while creeping plants hang from the windows. The craftsmen are a chosen people. They are men of intelligence working for a common aim, giving all that is best in them for the achievement of their ideals. They have learned the glory of work, to love it for its own sake. They, too, have their acknowledged share in it. For every piece that leaves their hands finished and ready to go out into the world bears their initials, which will make them known to posterity in the same way that the handworkers of past ages are known to us. . . . The employees, who number over a hundred, are, in addition to their weekly earnings, entitled to a share in all profits made.

Incidentally Mr. Levetus mentions an interesting fact concerning the Austrian workman. In Austria, a concession from a special department of the government is necessary before a workshop can be opened. Also, the master-workman must "furnish proof

that he is in every way capable, and must produce his *Befähigungsnachweis*, showing that he has served his apprenticeship, his journeymanhip, and then passed his master's examination." As Mr. Levetus remarks, "whether this policy of regulating industry be right or wrong, it is enough to say that it would be practically impossible for a William Morris to start a printing-press here, for the simple reason that he had not qualified in the legal way."

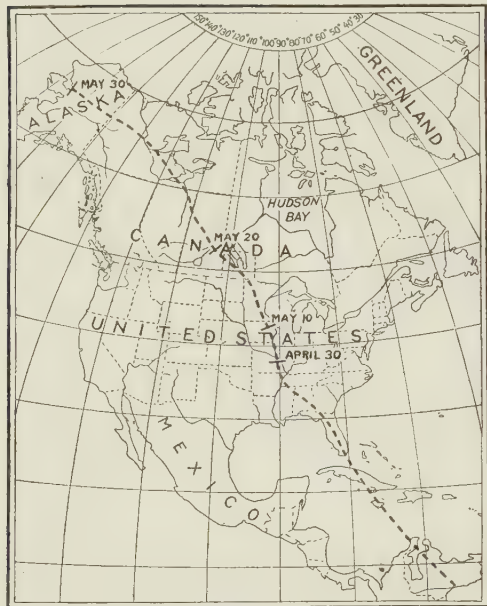
The art director is Professor Hoffmann, around whom are gathered several of Austria's best modern artists. He is "a pedagogue in the best sense; he admits of no mere copying. his teaching like his art being based upon sound principles." The vein of his colleague, Prof. Kolo Moser, is "a lighter one, though he is in every way a fine artist. His temperament is that of the true Viennese, joyous, earnest, rhythmical; and he is endowed with a developed sense of beauty." Professor Czeschka is preëminently a decorative artist, and "one of the most modest men under the sun," as was said of him by Ludwig, the late critic, who added: "Whatever Czeschka takes in hand assumes a new form, a new soul. He works and teaches how to work." A silver cabinet by Professor Czeschka was sold two years ago for 50,000 kronen in Vienna.

A few years ago the founders of the Werkstätte and the most prominent modern artists in Vienna formed themselves into a society calling itself the "Klimt Group," after Gustav Klimt, the celebrated Viennese painter. Afterward they merged into the *Kuntschau*, which held two exhibitions in the Austrian capital in 1908 and 1909.

CURIOSITIES OF BIRD-MIGRATION

FROM time immemorial the flights of birds have excited the wonder of mankind; and, although with the progress of the ages a considerable number of the puzzles of bird-migration have been elucidated, there remain to-day many points connected with it which time has failed to solve and which seem destined to remain unfathomable mysteries. How, for instance, does the golden plover find its way every season 2400 miles across the ocean to the Hawaiian Islands? What guides the arctic tern in its annual round trip of 22,000 miles from the "Farthest North" to the antarctic continent and return? In the *National Geographic Magazine*

Mr. Wells W. Cooke, of the Biological Survey, United States Department of Agriculture, presents much interesting information concerning bird-migration, collected by the Survey; and he cautions his readers that "no correct understanding of bird-migration is possible until it is considered as a voluntary evolution. All migratory movements must have begun with changes of location, which were only very slight." Benefits accruing from these short changes, migration became a fixed habit, the distance covered being very gradually increased as each succeeding extension proved advantageous. It is about a hundred years, Mr. Cooke tells



MIGRATION ROUTE OF THE BLACK-POLL WARBLERS
THAT NEST IN ALASKA

(This bird winters in South America alongside the cliff swallow, but in summer seems to try and get as far as possible from its winter neighbor. Note how its northward route diverges from the northward flight of the cliff swallow, shown on the other map on this page. It travels at night, often flying several hundred miles in the darkness)

us, since the first reliable notes on migration in the United States were recorded, and this period has proved too short to show any perceptible difference in time, direction, or speed. He adds:

It can be affirmed that the migration routes of to-day are the results of innumerable experiments as to the best way to travel from the winter to the summer home and return. It can also be said that food supplies en route have been the determining factor in the choice of one course in preference to another, and not the distance from one food base to the next. The location of plenty of suitable provender having been ascertained, the birds pay no attention to the length of the single flight required to reach it.

As regards the migration of birds of the western hemisphere, Mr. Cooke says:

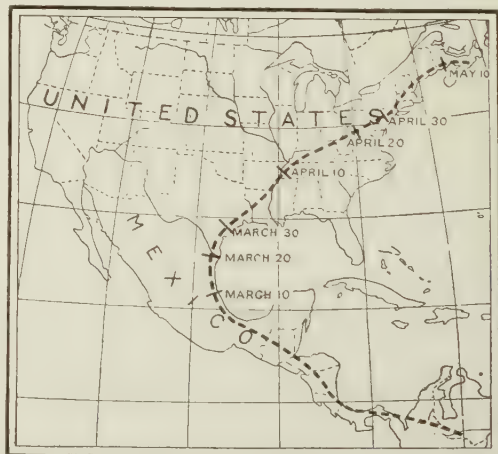
The two areas of abundant food supplies are North America and Northern South America, separated by the comparatively small land areas of Mexico and Central America, the West Indies, and the great stretches of foodless waters. The different courses taken by the birds to get around or over this intervening inhospitable region are almost as numerous as the bird families that traverse them. By far the most important route may be said to extend from northwestern Florida and western Louisiana across the Gulf of Mexico to the southern coast of the Gulf, and thence by land through Central America to South America.

Probably more individuals follow this route than all the other routes combined.

The birds east of the Allegheny Mountains move southwest in the fall, approximately parallel with the seacoast, and most keep this same direction across the Gulf to Eastern Mexico. The birds of the central Mississippi Valley go southward to and over the Gulf. The birds between the Missouri River and the edge of the plains, and those of Canada east of the Rocky Mountains, move southeastward and south until they join the others in their passage of the Gulf. In other words, the great majority of North American birds bound for a winter's sojourn in Central or South America elect a short cut across the Gulf of Mexico, in preference to a longer land journey by way of Florida or Texas. In fact, millions of them cross the Gulf at its widest part, which necessitates a single flight of 500 to 700 miles.

Mr. Cooke gives some curious facts concerning what may be termed the idiosyncrasies of migration. All black-poll warblers winter in South America, and they have as winter neighbors the cliff swallows. When the return north is made, the swallows take a route 2000 miles longer than that of the warblers; the explanation being that the warbler is a night migrant, launching into the air soon after nightfall, and making its way several hundred miles to its next feeding ground. On the other hand, the swallow is a day migrant catching its daily ration of flying insects. The longest continuous flight in the world—2500 miles—is ascribed to the golden plover, about which Mr. Cooke writes as follows:

This species nests along the arctic coast of North America, and as soon as the young are old enough to care for themselves fall migration is begun by a trip to the Labrador coast, where the plover fattens for several weeks on the abundant native fruits. A short trip across the Gulf of St.



MIGRATION ROUTE OF THE CLIFF SWALLOWS THAT
NEST IN NOVA SCOTIA

(The swallow, unlike the warbler, travels by day)

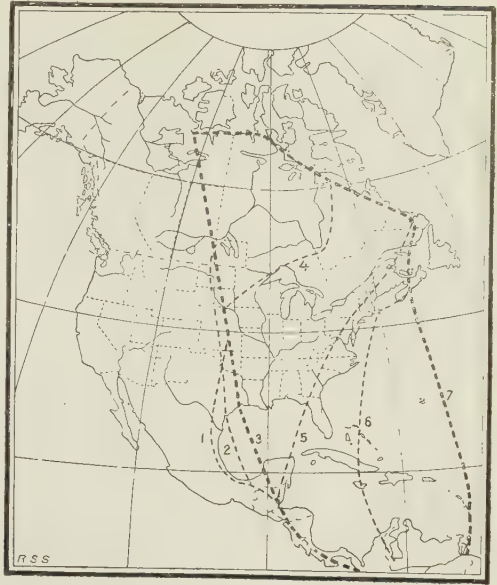
Lawrence brings it to Nova Scotia, the starting point for its extraordinary ocean flight, due south to the coast of South America.

The golden plover takes a straight course across the ocean, and, if the weather is propitious, makes the whole 2400 miles without pause or rest. But if tempests arise, it may be blown out of its course to the New England coast and start anew on the advent of fair weather; or it may rest for a few days at the Bermudas, one-third of the way along its course, or at the nearest of the Lesser Antilles, still 600 miles from the mainland of South America. These, however, are emergency stop-overs, to be resorted to only in case of storms. Having accomplished its ocean voyage, it passes across Eastern South America to its winter home in Argentina.

After a six months' vacation here, the plover finds its way back to the Arctic by an entirely different route. It travels across Northwestern South America and the Gulf of Mexico, reaching the United States along the coasts of Louisiana and Texas. Thence it moves slowly up the Mississippi Valley and by early June is again at the nesting site on the arctic coast. Its round trip has taken the form of an enormous ellipse, with a minor axis of 2000 miles and a major axis stretching 8000 miles from arctic America to Argentina.

The evolution of this elliptical route of the plover is traced by the scientists back to the glacial period.

Mr. Cooke considers the arctic tern to be the world's most extraordinary traveler and the world's migration champion. Nesting as far north as land has been discovered, this bird winters on the antarctic continent; its journey of 22,000 miles to and fro occupies it scarcely twenty weeks—about 150 miles a day. These terns have more hours of day-



MAP SHOWING THE EVOLUTION OF THE PRESENT
MIGRATION ROUTE OF THE GOLDEN PLOVER

light and sunlight than any other animals on the globe; for the midnight sun never sets during their stay in the north, and for two months of their stay in the antarctic they do not see a sunset.

Lighthouses lure thousands of birds to destruction. A red light or a rapidly flashing one repels the birds, but a steady white one proves irresistible.

THE ALUMINUM INDUSTRY

THE recent award of the Perkin Medal to Charles Martin Hall for his inventions and discoveries in connection with the manufacture of aluminum has recalled public attention to the wonderful development of the aluminum industry in this country. The medal was awarded by a committee representing the Society of Chemical Industry, the American Chemical Society, and the American Electro-Chemical Society. This medal was founded in honor of Sir William Perkin, the English chemist, by his American contemporaries, who desired in this way to connect the work of the industrial and chemical advance in America with the earliest and most pronounced advance made in England through Perkin's discovery of mauve.

Mr. Hall's discovery that aluminum oxide dissolved in fumes of cryolite produces a solution of low electric conductivity from

which the aluminum may be deposited in the metallic state is the basis of the present industry. Mr. Hall has also made many other valuable inventions which have an important bearing on the industry, and the award of the Perkin medal to him was recommended by a unanimous vote of the committee. The *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry* for March contains a full account of the conferring of the medal and interesting historical statements relating to Mr. Hall's discoveries. The principal address was made by Dr. Charles F. Chandler, who himself, in 1854, listened to Wöhler's account of his discovery of aluminum in 1827, and in the following year was shown by Rose aluminum which he had extracted from cryolite by the action of sodium in the spring of that year. This mineral cryolite from Greenland was used experimentally to

produce aluminum by the action of sodium. The process of manufacturing was, however, so expensive that aluminum was really a precious metal. The price, as stated by Dr. Chandler, was in 1854 \$90 a pound, in 1856 \$27 a pound, and in 1862 \$12 a pound.

While a student in Oberlin College, Mr. Hall made many experiments in the hope of finding a more economical process for the production of aluminum. Finally his thoughts turned to electrolysis, and a few months after his graduation from college, he began to seek an anhydrous solvent for the oxide of aluminum operative at a practical temperature which would bring the oxide into solution, and would yield to the electric current. Fluorspar and the fluorides of magnesium, sodium, potassium, and aluminum were tried in succession, but were found to be too infusible, and to dissolve little, if any, of the oxide. On February 10, 1886, Hall tried cryolite, the double fluoride of sodium and aluminum. This fused readily at a moderate temperature, and the white powder of

alumina (the oxide of aluminum) dissolved readily in it to the extent of more than 25 per cent. It was well known that cryolite could be electrolyzed, and Hall proceeded at once to apply the electric current to this cryolite solution. His first experiments were not successful, but on February 23, 1886, he employed a carbon-lined crucible, and was successful in obtaining the result. Thus, says Dr. Chandler, he had invented a process for making aluminum directly from alumina by electrolysis, under conditions which promised to revolutionize the industry, and furnish the metal at so low a price as to replace copper, lead, tin, zinc and other metals for an endless variety of purposes.

Dr. Chandler called attention to the remarkable coincidence that almost at precisely the same time that Hall was making his discoveries on this side the Atlantic, a young Frenchman, Dr. Paul Héroult, of the same age, was making essentially the same discovery, reducing it to practice, and devising a new process of practically the same nature as that devised by Hall. Thus, at the age of twenty-two years, these two men had discovered and invented simultaneously what had escaped Wöhler, Rose, Deville, and many of the other world-renowned chemists who had busied themselves with aluminum over a period of half a century. Dr. Chandler adds that in the quarter of a century that has elapsed since the discoveries of Hall and Héroult, no one has succeeded in bettering what they did. American patents for the process were granted to Hall, and French patents to Héroult. The industry has been conducted on essentially the same lines in France and America from that day to this.

When compelled to defend in court the originality of his invention, Hall found his claim as an inventor sustained by no less a personage than United States Circuit Judge William Howard Taft, now the President of the United States. Judge Taft wrote: "Hall was a pioneer, and is entitled to the advantages which that fact gives him in the patent laws." The court declared the patent valid.

The commercial manufacture of aluminum was begun near Pittsburg in 1888, with an output of fifty pounds of metal a day. The operating company soon erected larger works at Niagara Falls, as the first consumers of the electricity supplied by the Niagara Falls Power Company. At the present time the Aluminum Company of America has establishments at Niagara Falls and Massena, N. Y., on the St. Lawrence, and at Shawenigan Falls in Canada. The total consumption



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DR. PAUL HÉROULT

(The inventor who worked out in France the same electrolytic process for the production of aluminum that was discovered independently in America at the same time)

of electricity by the company is 140,000 horse power, which is believed to be a larger amount of electricity than is consumed by any other electrochemical works in the world. The annual output of aluminum is now 40,000,000 pounds. The price has been reduced from the \$12 of 1862 to an average of 22 cents a pound.

An address by Professor Richards, of Lehigh University, made on this same occasion, summarizes the chief uses of aluminum at the present time. The American public has become familiar with its use for cooking utensils, and for this purpose the metal is peculiarly adapted, since it is more durable than any other metal used for the purpose, does not tarnish, and has great merits from a sanitary point of view. Professor Richards predicts that this will be the largest use of aluminum. It also enters very largely into the construction of automobiles, and it is believed that some of its new alloys will come into general use in the construction of flying machines. One use of the metal which is less known to the general public, but which, by metallurgists, is regarded as of great importance, is in the manufacture of steel, where it is almost universally employed to solidify steel castings. An ounce of aluminum to a ton of steel, put in as the metal is poured, solidifies the steel by removing the gases which make the castings unsound.

Aluminum is also the leading competitor with copper for electrical conductors. A conductor one mile long, of a given carrying capacity, is cheaper made of aluminum than made of copper. In the matter of weight, aluminum has the advantage, for half a pound of aluminum takes the place of a pound of copper, and does the same electrical work. Thousands of pounds of aluminum are now used for long-distance transmission lines.

Another use of this wonderful metal is in the Goldschmidt thermo-welding process, employed in welding together steel rails and in repairing the broken shafts of steamships. The mixture of aluminum powder and iron oxide, when ignited, burns violently and generates a heat that quickly melts the iron, and facilitates the welding.

In concluding his address, Professor Richards declared that the bringing of aluminum into the rank of cheaper metals was one of the great metallurgical achievements of the nineteenth century, and predicted that the historian of the future would probably class the industrial manufacture of aluminum



DR. CHARLES MARTIN HALL

(Recipient of the Perkin Medal in recognition of his services as inventor of the modern process of producing aluminum, by which the price of that metal has been reduced about 90 per cent.)

alongside the invention of the Bessemer steel. "The man," he said, "who takes a rare metal and makes out of it a common metal, and brings it into every-day use, has made the entire human race his debtor."

The raw material from which all metallic aluminum is now produced is bauxite, extensive deposits of which are found in Arkansas, Alabama, Georgia, and Tennessee. Aluminum is an essential constituent of all the important rocks, except sandstone and limestone. It is said that its oxide makes up 15 or 16 per cent. of the earth's crust. Considering the great abundance of the metal in nature, it is hard to realize that only a quarter of a century ago it was regarded as a chemical curiosity.

"MADE IN GERMANY" NO LONGER TO BE SNEERED AT

THE average American or Englishman when noting the label "Made in Germany," has been apt to regard it with an air of fine superiority—not to say disdain. It would seem, however, that the time is fast approaching, if it has not already arrived, when American and English manufacturers will have to look to their laurels and keep an eye on their competitors in the land of the Kaiser. In the current issue of *Cassier's* is printed a valuable comparative study of American and German workshops by Mr. William H. Dooley, who, as an editorial foreword announces, "discusses his subject in the light of an educator who is familiar with the progress of the United States." The first thing that impressed this writer in passing through the Continental establishments was "the lack of the thousand-and-one devices to save manual labor that we are accustomed to see in American shops." He noticed also "a lack of division of labor in the metal and engineering factories or plants. One can readily see that they attempt to make all kinds of tools under one roof." The advantage of the American producer over the foreigner lies "in superior shop organization and in superior technical knowl-

edge." There is on the Continent "a tendency to cling to the old hand processes," whereas the United States "has entered upon its industrial development unfettered by the old order of things, and with a tendency on the part of the people to seek the best and quickest way." The European manufacturer, however, has "the advantage of having the disposition and government on his side," and, moreover, he is "not troubled so much by ignorant labor leaders insisting on that which cannot be granted without serious injury to the business in which they are engaged." Of the headway made of late by German engineering firms Mr. Dooley writes:

Of all the European countries Germany is the nearest rival to the United States. The average American does not realize the gain made by that country. German manufacturers are putting more engineering thought into their designs than at any other time in the history of tool construction. . . . Every tool that is imported into Germany is subject to scrutiny; and if engineering skill, backed by careful mathematical deductions, can make an improvement, the German will be the first to discover the fact. Within a short time a new machine will be on the market with some improvement.

Mr. Dooley visited Solingen, the great cutlery center. Here about 29,000 persons are engaged in making knives and forks, scissors and swords; three-fifths of them doing their work at home, the local authority providing the men with gas and electric power.

The average American or Englishman has not a very high opinion of German cutlery, and it would surprise one if he only saw some of the excellent quality of cutlery turned out by the German manufacturers.

Cheap and inferior cutlery is turned out at Solingen, and not infrequently with the name Sheffield stamped on it; but they also produce goods of first-rate quality, and are able to compete with Sheffield on their merits. That they turn out very beautiful goods cannot be denied—exquisite specimens of damascened, inlaid, and other fancy work. The superior Solingen cutlery is not cheap; the material is the best Swedish steel, the same that Sheffield uses. An extraordinary thing about the cutlery trade is the almost incredible variety of knives made. At the Suffolk works in Sheffield, for instance, they have 10,000 different patterns on the books, and will be actually making 3000 to order at the same time. I found the same thing at Solingen; Henckels have 9000 patterns for Germany alone. Every trade, every country, and even every district has its own knives. New patterns are con-



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MANUFACTURING "UPPERS" IN A GERMAN
SHOE FACTORY



CASTING IN THE GREAT FOUNDRY OF THE KRUPP STEEL WORKS, ESSEN, GERMANY

tinually coming out; the Suffolk works have averaged ten new patterns a week for two years. This is a trade which will not be standardized, and that is one reason why America has hitherto failed to compete.

Another place visited was Essen, where in 1811 "the first crucible furnace for casting steel was set up by a poor, hard-working young man, Frederick Krupp." The total population was then under 4000. To-day the Krupp corporation alone employs 63,191 persons and owns iron and coal mines and over 4000 houses. All kinds of finished and unfinished materials for railroads, engines, tools, mills, and other industrial appliances are turned out in large and small quantities. "Compare this," says Mr. Dooley, "with the highly specialized condition of the industries in this country."

The most striking feature of German iron and steel factories Mr. Dooley found to be their clean, orderly, and well-kept condition; these qualities extending to what are usually the dirtiest and most untidy departments. The foundries were a revelation to him. An accident-prevention rule required that the gangways be broad enough to exclude injury by machinery or transmission parts in motion, and kept free from materials or articles—in strange contrast to the average American shop "with its heaps of manufactured or unmanufactured articles lying about blocking the gangway." The practice of providing comforts and conveniences for the employees is more common in Germany than in America or England. "Lockers are provided. Baths are common, particularly

shower baths, with hot and cold water, and in summer they are much used." In this connection, the following typical schedule of working hours is of interest:

HOURS IN CUTLERY WORKS AT SOLINGEN

Begin	7 A.M.
Breakfast	9 to 9.15 A.M.
Youthful workers	9 to 9.30 A.M.
Dinner	12 to 1.30 P.M.
Tea	4 to 4.15 P.M.
Youthful workers	4 to 4.30 P.M.
Close	7 P.M.

Total, 12 hours, minus 2 hours for meals, equals 10 hours. Week, 60 hours for men, 58½ hours for women. (Law forbids the employment of women after 5.20 P.M. on Saturdays and on the eve of holidays.)

Mr. Dooley utters a word of warning:

It is clear that if Americans propose to keep ahead in shop efficiency, and in ability to run a shop with the least possible number of men, they must look to the training of the workmen from boyhood up. . . . European countries are far ahead of the United States in this training. . . . European countries, particularly Germany, saw, with the changes in industrial life, that the shop was not providing the proper training for the young apprentice. The government provided schools for the apprentices to attend Sunday mornings and certain periods of the week. . . . These schools are called Continuation Schools. The subjects of instruction are: Trade calculations, with bookkeeping; business correspondence and reading; the study of life and citizenship; mechanical drawing, physics, and machinery; materials and shop work. Every apprentice is allowed by his employer to attend this school ten hours a week without loss of pay. . . . Then there are four distinct types of schools preparing for positions between journeyman, machinist, and engineer. They are: The schools of industry, the master workmen's schools, the higher trade schools, and the Technicum.

PROGRESS AMONG YOUNG TURKEY'S WOMEN

THE "advanced" woman is having a somewhat hard time in Turkey. The educated women of that country worked as strenuously as did the men to bring about the revolution; and patriotic Turkish women proved themselves the safest messengers and the easiest channel of communication whereby the Committee of Union and Progress could carry out its secret preparations and secret propaganda. It was therefore only natural that, when despotism was dethroned, Young Turkey's womankind, equally with the Young Turks themselves, should expect that a certain increase of liberty would be granted to them also. In regard to the form which this liberty would take there was considerable difference of opinion.

Some, mistaking the outward signs of liberty for the essentials, gladly threw back the *tcharchaf*, and dreamed that they could wear hats, hats from Paris which would complete their European dress. It was feminine, and excusable. But they were speedily undeceived. The government, with its finger on the pulse of the people, saw that such innovations could only cause offense to the old-fashioned and devout section of the community—the majority; and they hurriedly disabused the poor ladies of their innocent and comprehensible ambition. No, the ladies must go veiled as before. Notes were sent round to ladies of position who had transgressed, and prudent husbands and brothers peremptorily ordered their womenfolk to observe the same rules as their grandmothers in such matters as the veil, walking out alone, and the other petty privileges that foreign women enjoy. Others thought that at least they would be permitted to receive the visits of a few men friends. Here even the Young Turk, with a few notable exceptions, proved himself an Old Turk of the most uncompromising pattern. He urged that such conduct could only cause scandal, and asked, somewhat indignantly, if his wife could not be content with the society of her kinsmen. Policy went hand in hand with that tendency to safeguard the modesty of his women by preventive rather than retentive measures, which is natural to every Oriental, however Occidentalized.

The wiser of the Turkish sisterhood, however, looked further ahead. Recognizing the fact that Turkish women generally were fitted neither by education nor by temperament for personal liberty, as Western women understand that liberty, they realized as patriots that it was not the time now to press for minor liberties, when such an attitude on their part might cause prejudice against the general cause of liberty and progress in the country at large. What, then, could they do? How was the soil to be prepared for harvesting by a later generation? The answer is to be summed up in a single word—education.

E. S. Stevens, from whose article in the *Contemporary Review* (London) the above extract is taken, contributes some interesting information concerning the status of education among Turkish women. The foreign governess system, adopted in many a Turkish home, has resulted in what she terms "superficial Europeanization." The foreign school system is better; and excellent work is being done by the American College for Girls at Scutari, the English High School in Constantinople, and the French convent schools. But such schools can be carried on only in a very limited way. The crying need is "for Turkish state schools, with Turkish teachers and pupils, in which the standard of education shall be as high as in the state schools of other European countries."

At first this seemed an impossible dream; firstly, because of the lack of a staff of trained Turkish women, fully qualified to instruct; and secondly, because of the suspicion with which such a scheme was looked upon by the more old-fashioned and conservative. Such a staff, however, is now being trained in the American College and elsewhere. The other difficulties have so far removed themselves that Sultan Mehmed V . . . has presented a palace at Kandilli on the Bosphorus in which 'the first Lycée is to be opened this spring. . . . Many pupils have inscribed themselves already; and they comprise Mussulman girls from all parts of the world, some coming even from India; so that the school is likely to be a force all over the Mohammedan world of women. . . .

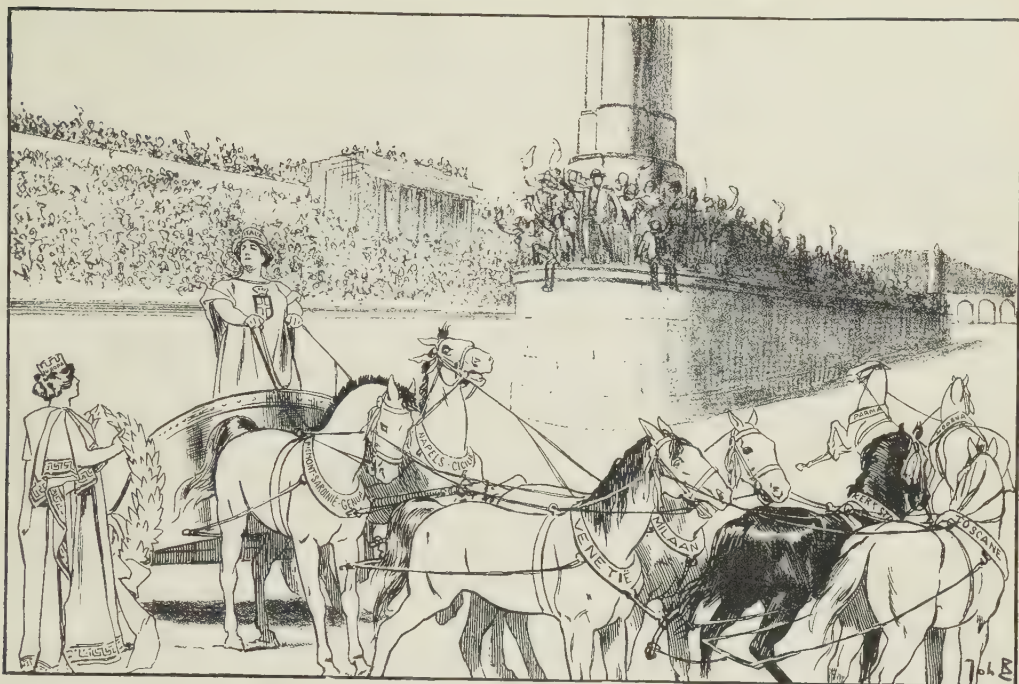
There will be periodical examinations, the highest corresponding to the *Bachelier-ès-Lettres* in France. All elementary lessons will be given in Turkish, and advanced lessons, too, excepting in only a few subjects such as science, for which foreign mistresses will necessarily be employed.

As is generally the case with reforms in Turkey, the principal difficulty is the lack of funds. The government is too poor to shoulder the scheme, so much is being done by private enterprise.

The *Contemporary* writer gives a defense of the movement among Mohammedan women of Turkey, furnished to her by a Turkish lady of very high rank, who says:

You Western women do not understand that we Orientals are trying not for any new privileges, but for those which we have possessed and lost. . . . Formerly, contrary to what is generally believed nowadays, Mohammedan men and women pursued the same studies without distinction, in the same scientific centers. . . . *Islamism allowed woman to attain the farthest goal she could aim at.*

On the subject of the veil, the same lady remarks that in the time of Mohammed the face-covering was not worn by women.



THE JUBILEE OF UNITED ITALY

EUROPE TO ITALY: "Hail, my daughter, on the attainment of thy fiftieth round without halt or mishap."
 From *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam)

VIVA ITALIA—THE NATIONAL TRIUMPH OF A RACE

ONCE again, after long centuries, the Capitol at Rome is the scene of a triumph. A long array of chained captives follows the victor's car. It is a motley procession. Tyranny, Oppression, Foreign Domination, Ignorance, Superstition, Priestcraft—all these are represented among the ranks of the vanquished; and who shall say that they are not more glorious trophies of victory than any which graced the Triumph of a Cæsar?"

But in this year of grace the Capitol is witnessing "a scene of far deeper import than the triumphal progress of an individual. Together with the whole civilized world it is looking down on the celebration not of a single victory, but of a series of battles waged for more than half a century." In the *National Review* (London), Mr. Richard Bagot recalls to the attention of his readers "some of the particulars of the immense task which devolved upon the modern Italians in consequence of the successful transformation of the homogeneous group of states and peoples—which sixty years ago enabled an Aus-

trian politician to refer to Italy as being merely a geographical expression—into a united monarchy, and a people inspired by national aims and interests."

The quarter-century immediately preceding that moment "when the Italians were at last free to place the coping-stone on the edifice they had raised, and to make Rome the capital of the united kingdom," had been devoted to a life struggle with foreign foes settled in their midst.

Yet, even during a period when the forces, physical and moral, of the newly formed nation were required to expel foreign domination, much was being done in anticipation; and by the time the temporal sovereignty of the Papacy fell, and the chief internal foe to Italian liberty and progress was effectually muzzled, much had been given to Italy by the extraordinary energy of her liberators, seconded by the self-sacrifice of her sons. Railways, considerable concessions to the principles of Free Trade, new and enlightened civil and penal codes, local government, protection against priestly persecutions and extortions, free education—these are only some of the provisions created in the face of the greatest difficulties and carried into effect with indomitable resolution and surprising rapidity.

Naturally these measures entailed a heavy drain on the purse of the Italian people; yet so energetically was the work carried out of restoring equilibrium to the national finances that in 1876, only six years after the transformation of Rome into the capital of United Italy, the minister of finance was able to produce a budget which brought the revenue and expenditure to equality.

From 1876 until late in the '80's, as the Italians themselves would admit, "party ambition rather than the welfare of the country, influenced the rulers of Italy." Under the Depretis administration, reforms had to be paid for in votes to keep that administration in office. The advent of Crispi, at the death of Depretis, was a blessing, albeit in disguise, to Italy. A strong man was needed; and Crispi, with all his defects, was a strong man and an able leader. By the time Crispi assumed office anarchism, imported from America and Russia, was being rapidly propagated in the ranks of the discontented working classes; and ultimately King Humbert fell a victim to the ill-judged severity of his ministers. Under the liberal reign of Victor Emmanuel III political persecutions have ceased and the extreme parties in the state have modified their programs.

The Italians are often taunted with the loss of the artistic spirit which is supposed to be their especial patrimony. To this charge Mr. Bagot replies:

I hope I may escape the accusation of being a Philistine if I venture to suggest that the utilitarian rather than the artistic spirit is of primary importance to a young nation. It may be true that the modern Italians have not that artistic sense which so specially distinguished their forefathers. Indeed, the streets of Rome, and of other great Italian cities bear painful witness to the remarkable decay of that sense; while the artistic output in what are known as the Fine Arts is, in the main, on a very deplorable level when compared with that of past centuries. But the critics in question are apt to forget, or despise, the existence of what may be termed the utilitarian arts—and in many of these last Italy has shown herself to be second to none, and, in some, a pioneer. To produce distinguished men in the fields of social and applied science, medicine, surgery, engineering, and invention has indisputably been of greater practical service to modern Italy than the reincarnation of the entire company of those mighty artists of the *cinquecento* and *seicento* who made her so famous in the past.

Visitors to Italy are prone to form their opinions as to progress from what they see in the larger towns; but Mr. Bagot, as one who has lived long in Italy, considers that the most noticeable evidences of national progress are to be found in the country dis-

tricts, where one of the most striking changes is the disappearance of that spirit of jealousy and unfriendliness which formerly existed between neighboring villages and towns. Another important reformation is that of Italy's military system. The soldier's life is no longer "unnecessarily hard and almost brutalizing." Both his health and his morals are looked after, and the discipline, though severe, is no longer unreasonable.

The movement toward public thrift in Italian rural life is remarkable. To quote Mr. Bagot further:

Coöperative societies, savings banks, and people's banks exist on a scale and on a system immeasurably superior to anything of the kind that we can show in England. Coöperative stores are to be found in even the most insignificant country villages, and I can vouch for the fact that the goods sold by them are often superior in quality to those one may purchase at almost double the price at the shops in the large towns. Friendly societies are numerous. It must be confessed that this movement is largely due to the action of the Socialists; and it must be noted that its initiation was the almost immediate result of the change in the policy of the Italian Government toward Socialism which has been so wise a feature in the reign of the present sovereign.

Instead of attempting to destroy, as is the case with English Socialism, Italian Socialism has honorably and systematically set itself to build up—and in this lies the whole distinction between the two. While detesting the former, one may surely be allowed, without departing from one's principles, to testify to the beneficent action of the latter, and to express one's regret that Socialism should ever aim at exceeding the limits of its *programma minimo*.

Mr. Bagot goes so far as to say that "it would be hopeless indeed to attempt to enumerate within the limits of an article the many victories won by modern Italian energy and statesmanship in the rural districts over conditions, habits, customs, and traditions belonging to the past which were not the less pernicious to the welfare of the country because they happened sometimes to be picturesque—victories which have been gained silently and unostentatiously, but which have contributed in no small degree to the justification of that triumph with which, among all nations, England has perhaps the prior right to sympathize."

It is only, this writer ventures to think, foreigners like himself who spend a considerable portion of their lives among Italian rural surroundings who can, perhaps, fully appreciate the magnitude of the work accomplished by Italy in the space of a few years, for the work done and the progress made in the last twelve years is far more marked than it was in the same period immediately preceding them.

DEFECTS AND NEEDS OF INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION

IN the history of the individual, law and force have long been rivals. For centuries trial by combat and trial by jury were competing remedies, until the latter showed its fitness to survive because it was a better, surer, and cheaper means of obtaining justice. Similarly arbitration and war are now competing remedies; war being the state in which a nation prosecutes its right by force, and arbitration an appeal to reason to do justice according to law. To this effect writes Prof. William Cullen Dennis in the *Columbia Law Review*; and he goes on to show that what is true in the history of the individual is duplicated in the history of nations. He says in this connection:

History seems to show that rightly or wrongly nations, like men, will continue to appeal to force to secure what they deem to be their just right until they become convinced that there is some surer, better way of obtaining justice, and arbitration can only hope to replace war as it demonstrates its superiority in actual practice. *Prima facie* this would not seem to be a very severe requirement, for it would appear that anyone who looks at the matter philosophically must admit that the worst arbitral sentence which has ever been rendered is infinitely more to be desired than any war. . . . If the municipal courts only replaced private warfare among individuals after the courts had been brought to a relatively high state of perfection through long experience, it can hardly be expected that nations will be more reasonable than men or that they will discard their swords for plowshares in order to submit their difficulties to tribunals less efficient than those which have been found necessary for the settlement of disputes among men. In other words, it is reasonable to suppose that before international arbitration can banish warfare it must afford at least as satisfactory a method of obtaining justice between nations as our municipal tribunals now afford between individuals.

To-day the main characteristic of arbitration between individuals is an almost irresistible tendency to compromise; and the representatives of the United States before international tribunals have recorded in almost every instance a similar tendency. Gallatin, the United States representative in the Northeastern Boundary arbitration with Great Britain, said: "An arbitrator, whether he be king or farmer, rarely decides on strict principle of law. He always has a bias to try, if possible, to split the difference." Mr. Carter, counsel in the Bering Sea arbitration, wrote, with reference thereto:

Compromise of some sort seems to have been the necessity of the situation; and when this is said, it

means that the tribunal was no court at all, but a body of men aiming to reach a solution which would either equally please, or equally displease, the contending parties.

Mr. Root, addressing the National Arbitration and Peace Conference of 1907, as Secretary of State, on the eve of the Second Hague Conference, said:

Arbitrators too often act diplomatically rather than judicially; they consider themselves as belonging to diplomacy rather than to jurisprudence; they measure their responsibility and their duty by the traditions, the sentiments and the sense of honorable obligation which have grown up in centuries of diplomatic intercourse, rather than by the traditions, the sentiments, and the sense of honorable obligations which characterize the judicial departments of civilized nations.

Professor Dennis cites five typical and leading arbitrations of which three resulted in compromises. Of the arbitral decisions of the Hague Tribunal, now nine in number, he finds the results more encouraging. These are his conclusions:

Summing up the results of this necessarily brief examination of the decisions of the Hague Court, so far rendered, it would seem that there are six decisions which, at least on the face of the record, are not open to the criticism that they are based on compromise, so far at least as the actual decisions are concerned; one decision, the Casablanca award, which is unquestionably a compromise; and two decisions which are fairly subject to the suggestion that they are, as to some points at least, affected by the spirit of compromise.

Stating this result as strongly as possible against the court, it would give six judicial decisions to three decisions in whole or in part affected by the spirit of compromise, a marked improvement over previous conditions and a very just ground for encouragement; but it remains true that arbitration even at the Hague Tribunal still frequently results in compromise.

It is probably true that the fundamental cause of the present condition of affairs lies in the nature of arbitration itself; and it is doubtless equally true that the ultimate remedy for compromise and arbitration is the substitution of a permanent judicial tribunal, —as has been done in regard to an international prize court, as noticed in another article in this section of the present issue of the REVIEW. There are, however, many and serious difficulties in the way of the establishment and operation of such a tribunal, —difficulties which it would be folly to underrate.

THE RAILROADS AND THE MAILS

A PROMINENT railroad man having protested that the magazines have misrepresented the facts in the controversy about the amounts paid by the Government for the carrying of the mails, the management of *Pearson's Magazine* offered him space in which to give the public information that might serve as the basis of a proper opinion. As a result of this offer an article was prepared by the authority and under the direction of the Committee on Railway Mail Pay, which includes in its membership J. Kruttschnitt, of the Union and Southern Pacific systems; President Peters, of the Long Island Railroad; President Wickersham, of the Western Railway of Alabama; Vice-President Baldwin, of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad; and Frank Barr, third vice-president and general manager of the Boston & Maine. The article appears in the June number of *Pearson's*.

After giving some account of the origin of the railway-mail service and the establishment of the rates by which the railroads were to be paid for the service, the article proceeds to set forth the main points in the contention of the railroads for a readjustment of mail pay. The first of these points has to do with the adjustment of the remuneration to the railroads on the basis of weight transported. The present system, the article asserts, works out in the following manner: The whole country is divided into four weighing sections, so far as the handling of mail is concerned. In each one of these sections the mail is weighed during a period of 105 consecutive days, once every four years; and the average weight thus determined is taken by the Government as the basis of payment during the ensuing four-year period. Figures show that the annual average increase in the weight of mail carried is about 8 per cent.; and yet the Government insists that the railroads shall carry this increase without pay, thus forcing them to furnish, free of cost, mail service worth nearly \$3,000,000 a year.

The second point upon which the railroads ask relief from the present conditions has to do with the question of remuneration to the carriers for the space devoted to the transportation of mails in addition to the mere matter of the weight transported. Since the year 1873, when the railway post-office car was recognized in law as a feature of our postal system, mail matter ceased to be, in the broadest sense, merely freight. As the railroads maintain, the carrying of the mails of the country has become, in fact, a part of their passenger service. It is estimated that at the

present time about 85 per cent. of all mail is handled in railway post-office cars and apartment cars. The facts are as follows:

The average weight of mail carried in each railway post-office car is only about three tons. Nearly twenty-two tons of dead weight is handled by the carriers of each ton of mail, a figure very closely approximating that of passenger service. In the case of freight, however, the dead weight handled for each ton is only 1.1 tons. The act of 1873, therefore, provided that, in railway post-office cars, payment should be made not merely for the weight carried but also for the space occupied, since no mere basis of pay by weight could meet a condition under which a whole car is used for the transportation of only three tons of mail. These payments for space vary with the size of the car. But note this fact: that no allowance is made for any space less than forty feet in length. Yet, as a matter of fact, there are in service to-day about 3800 mail apartment cars, as against 1400 railway post-office cars.

The railway post-office car, so-called, is devoted entirely to the carriage of mail and to its sorting and distribution while in transit, but a large proportion of the mail is carried in what are known as apartment cars—that is, in cars in which a part of the space, fitted up exactly as are all the railway post-office cars, is devoted to mail handling. Now, while the Government makes an allowance for space occupied above an arbitrary limit, it pays absolutely nothing for the space occupied in these apartment cars in spite of the fact that they are in every way similar to the railway post-office car, except in the matter of size.

Finally, the railroads complain of the free service exacted by the Government in connection with the carrying of the mails. For instance, the Government requires the railroads, in many cases, to deliver the mail from the cars to post-offices within a distance of one-quarter of a mile from their stations without extra compensation. According to the statement of a former Postmaster-General, this service would cost the Post-Office Department over \$4,250,000 annually if the Government employed contractors to do the work. Furthermore, the railroads not only carry free the persons in charge of the mails, as the law provides, but the postal clerks are transported without cost from the ends of their runs to their homes on the line of the railroad, and officers and special agents of the Department, post-office inspectors, and officers of the Railway Mail Service, are furnished free transportation amounting to a total of more than \$1,000,000 a year, all of which is outside of the requirements of the law. In this connection, the article sarcastically remarks that "with beautiful consistency, the Government proposes to prosecute any other shipper who should demand similar free transportation not provided for by law."

SOME OF THE SEASON'S BEST FICTION

THE most stimulating of them all: so must one designate "The New Machiavelli," the latest romance by Mr. H. G. Wells (Duffield & Co.), in comparing it with the rest of the season's novels. From this book a long, luxurious revel of intellectual pleasure may be obtained. It is not, however, bare ideas alone that distinguish "The New Machiavelli." Mr. Wells, one of the greatest social philosophers alive, here also makes manifest a zealous altruism. He tells us, through the mouth of Remington, parliamentarian and publicist, that he wants "to make something of mankind," and this philanthropical object he wishes to achieve through the practical medium of "constructive politics." These are to be engendered, "not as the spontaneous product of crowds of raw minds swayed by elementary needs," but are to result from "coördinating the will of the finer individuals, by habit and literature, into a broad common aim." Leadership in the march of human progress, then, is to be assumed by an aristocracy at once cultured and broad-minded, imaginative and self-disciplined, "an aristocracy," moreover, "not of privilege, but of understanding and purpose." How Remington's high ambitions were brought to nought by an affair of the heart—this collateral



"STONEWALL" JACKSON
(From the frontispiece of "The Long Roll")

theme only enhances the interest of a splendidly trenchant and superbly earnest book. For a contrasting treatment of love and politics one should by all means read Galsworthy's excellent novel, "The Patrician" (Scribners), noticed in last month's REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

ON NATIONAL SUBJECTS

Among these, the Civil War is celebrated in a novel of noble caliber. Indeed, as to fulness of precise detail touching armed conflicts, one would have to search beyond the confines of American literature for a parallel to Mary Johnston's "The Long Roll" (Houghton, Mifflin). And if "The Long Roll" lacks, for example, the moral significance or the emotional intensity of "War and Peace" or "The Downfall," then the evocations of that Russian and that French masterpiece, during one's pursuit of the comparative, should themselves form acceptable compliments to the author of the present volume. Briefly and but generally stated, her 700-page tome relates political and martial events, by land and sea, happenings between the reading of the Botetourt Resolutions of December, 1860, which voiced Virginia's sentiments on secession, and the death at Guiney's Station, May 10, 1863, of "Stonewall" Jackson—the book's principal personage. He is described thus:

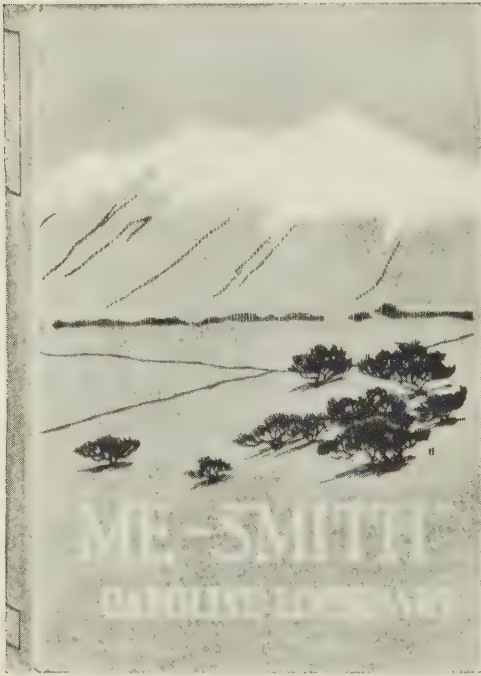
"An awkward, inarticulate, and peculiar man, with strange notions about his health and other matters, there was about him no breath of grace, romance, or pomp of war. He was ungenial, un-



MARY JOHNSTON

(Whose Civil War story, "The Long Roll," is attracting unusual attention)

gainly, with large hands and feet, with poor eyesight and a stiff address. . . . He drilled his troops seven hours a day. His discipline was of the sternest, his censure a thing to make the boldest officer blanch. A blunder, a slight neglect, any disobedience of orders—down came reprimand, suspension, arrest, with an iron certitude, a relentlessness quite like nature's. Apparently he was without imagination. He had but little sense of humor, and no understanding of a joke. He drank water and sucked lemons for dyspepsia, and fancied that the use of pepper had caused a weakness in his left leg. He rode a raw-boned nag named Little Sorrel, and said *oblique* instead of *obligue*. He found his greatest pleasure in going to the Presbyterian Church twice on Sunday, and to prayer meetings throughout the week."



THE COVER OF CAROLINE LOCKHART'S
NOVEL, "ME-SMITH"

Owing to the tremendous array of verifiable information, "The Long Roll" appears rather as a chronology than a novel, among all the essentially imaginative writings of the day. To one of them, also upon an American theme, composed by an American author, belongs the honor of presenting a character creation of very distinguished merit. "Befo' de war" just referred to, there existed in the Southland a type of self-styled perfect gentleman with actual traits stamping the perfect ruffian!—shabby and quarrelsome, bibulous and unscrupulous, quick to brag or lie, as quick to shoot, and quite insensible to the sacredness of neighbor's life and property. Similar qualities—though in his case mitigated by a few more lovable features—are exhibited by Judge Slocum Price, sometime major-general of militia and ex-Member of Congress, who compels attention to Vaughan Kester's "Prodigal Judge" (Bobbs-Merrill). The savory, luscious, ironic humor in this surpassing characterization does not, however, atone for the blemish of the

author's complacency toward all the revolting violence enacted during the story's course.

From this impeachment, at least, the author of "Me-Smith" (Lippincott) remains free. Also, Miss Caroline Lockhart must be thanked for purveying a tale of the Wild West sufficiently plausible to deserve reading by grown-up persons. In fiction that country has been almost absurdly melodramatized. It may have been the romantic Bret Harte who sowed the first seeds of misrepresentation. Miss Lockhart, although employing bright humorous sidelights, conjures up no false sympathy on behalf of the monstrous cattle-thief, bandit, and murderer who is in the habit of alluding to himself vaingloriously as "me—Smith," he—Smith—being blest with an Olympic deification of his own code.

The West seems readily to suggest the topic of New Englanders thither emigrating. But Mr. Carleton's middle-class, Bostonian, suburbanite, \$30-a-week mercantile clerk, when he loses his place, emigrates neither to Montana nor California. He imagines himself—see "One Way Out" (Small, Maynard)—as having arrived from Europe by steerage, dons a pair of overalls, goes to an employment agency, and gets a job. Beginning with pick and shovel, he rises to the position of foreman, and then becomes a contractor for labor. Meanwhile, he and his family live within his earnings, instead of living beyond them, under the sway of the traditional social standards proper to the middle-class commercial sphere abandoned by him. A unique theme, to be sure! Still, "One Way Out" has a weak spot or two. Some might object to a certain superficiality, and some to the arousal of class feeling; but equally conspicuous looms the spirit of an unbeautiful utilitarianism. Those New England "emigrants," although they "breathe in higher ideals, and find time to accept more opportunities," even when comfortably off dispense by inclination with books, pictures, theatre-going, and other such evidences of culture. "Keeping Up With Lizzie," by Irving Bacheller (Harpers), is another story the scene of which is laid in New England. This a slight little tale about a Connecticut village shop-keeper who has an expensively ambitious daughter. It is told by Socrates Potter, the village bachelor-philosopher, in a mildly humorous vein.

Predatory capitalists in league with corrupt politicians would sneer at "Thieves" (Duffield) and "The Root of Evil" (Doubleday, Page) for the empty rant of muckrakers, and no doubt many a platonic citizen would blink before the hot intensity of Thomas Dixon or the biting pertinacity of the pseudonymous "Aix." Nevertheless, granted that these two write as partisans, they do build their narrations on a base of universally known, undisputed actualities, and convey the impression of sincere feeling. Robert Service describes the primitive, brute bodily conquest of gold, "The Trail of '98" (Dodd, Mead) relating furiously frenzied doings in the Klondike. Immensely picturesque and vivid, "The Trail of '98" must, however, by reason of its unbalanced feverishness, be put down as melodrama.

In "Adventure" (Macmillan) Jack London has entered upon a different plane of writing. It is of a milder type, and freer from didacticism than is Mr. London's wont. The time is the present, the place is the Solomon Islands, and the persons,—those that count,—an Englishman and the inevitable, indispensable American girl. Gory details are not lacking, but it is frankly a story without "any remonstrance or propaganda up its sleeve."

SOME WOMEN ON MARRIAGE

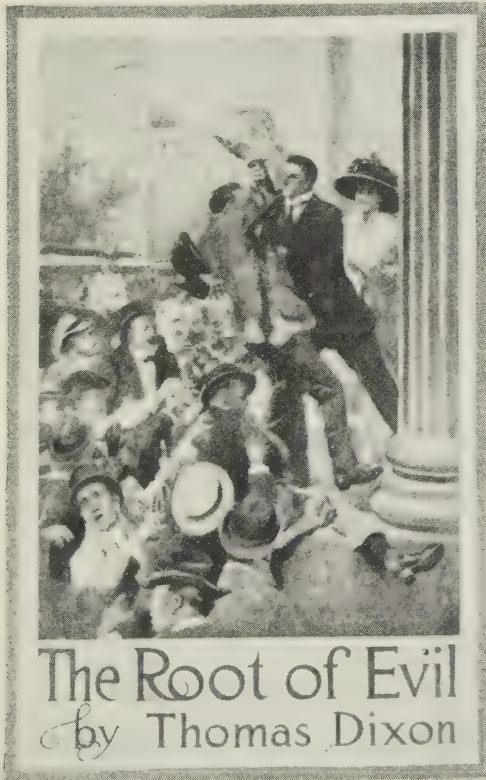
With reference to the estate matrimonial, none of these lady authors has indited a more succinctly commentative paragraph than Mrs. Vaizey, in "A Question of Marriage" (Putnam). A girl who by reason of an hereditary taint has to forego wifehood and motherhood, asks a friend privileged with both whether she is not "blissfully, ecstatically, unspeakably happy, almost too happy to live." Here is the friend's reply:

"Yes, I know—I am well off. But one can't live on the heights. And, oh dear, oh dear, there are such worries! Morton has given me notice. It's so difficult to find a decent cook for small wages. I shall have to begin the weary old hunt once more. And Lorna keeps complaining of her eyes. Robert says she must see an oculist, but I do so dread it. If she has to wear spectacles, it will break my heart. And you remember those dining-room curtains that I sent to be dyed? They came back to-day the wrong shade, simply shrieking at the walls—ruined! Isn't it maddening? I feel so depressed."

Humorous reflections of a sentimentious kind enliven the pages of Cora Harris' "Eve's Second Husband" (Altemus); the first Adam having been a rectitudinous prig, Eve next takes a consort who requires some reforming. Apart from a rather flagrant injection of what would be Mr. Wells or Mr. Galsworthy be specifiable as mid-Victorian sentimentality, the existence of this tale is justified by the amount of genuine amusement it affords. Take, for a single instance, the passage in chapter



VAUGHAN KESTER
(Author of "The Prodigal Judge")



COVER DESIGN OF THOMAS DIXON'S
NEW NOVEL

IX beginning "Married life, for woman, like all Gaul in ancient times, is divided into three parts." Neither of those aforesaid outspoken male scribes might approve the likewise mid-Victorian reticence of all these ladies on the subject of sexual love, and Dr. Saleeby or Ellen Key might wonder why, with so much talk about the amorous psychology of men and women relative to each other, the great, supreme result of all that emotion, namely their living offspring, should not be talked about a great deal more. The fact is that, although many instructive practical books have been written concerning children, adult fiction has not yet accorded them the position of importance to which they are entitled. And the same omission is to be observed in poetry, the drama, painting, and sculpture.

Mary Watts' clever development of Letty Breen's character, in "The Legacy" (Macmillan), is only an exception to this general rule. Otherwise, "The Legacy" presents an interesting study in feminine passivity, Letty being vanquishable by male solicitude and tenderness, yet incapable of strong response. Anne Warwick's "Compensation" (Lane), on the other hand, shows how the death of a spouse may awaken spiritual adoration in a survivor who has been an unfaithful mate. But "Compensation" and "The Legacy" demand a patient reader, because to speak politely, excessive animation is not their worst fault. "The Legacy" smacks strongly of Thackeray, in places.

"Howard's End," by E. M. Forster (Putnam), is the story of an intellectually honest woman who tries to make a success of her husband, but does not succeed because he is too obtuse. But she accepts her Philistine, makes the best of him, and lives in the possession of a happy philosophy, which



LEONARD MERRICK

(Whose novel, "Conrad in Quest of His Youth," is noticed on this page)

the author (or authoress,—for the name signed is a nom-de-plume) makes her express in some very brilliant, witty sentences.

If a man and a woman, who are both artists, marry, is there any way for the woman to find her true happiness, except in putting aside her own work altogether, and contenting herself with the reflected glory of his? There is not, if we are to believe the skilfully woven argument (for the story is an argument) in Mrs. Louise Closser Hale's story entitled "The Married Miss Worth" (Harpers). The man will not sacrifice himself, Mrs. Hale insists, and perhaps—but the story will tell why she thinks that he should not be expected to.

In "When Half-Gods Go" (Century) Helen R. Martin tells, in the form of a series of letters, the story of a struggle on the part of a disappointed bride to adjust her temperamental and ethical ideas to endurance of a shallow, philandering husband.

TALES OF VARIED TENOR

Many of us remember how, long, long ago, our tussles with French irregular verbs alternated with struggles to obtain the mastery of French prose, in the course of which mental athletics we were destined to encounter Monsieur Alexandre Dumas Père and his famous story of Holland, "*La Tulipe Noire*." Whoso now would choose to renew acquaintance with the Stadtholder, Prince William of Orange, and the brothers John and Cornelius de Witt has but to request from E. P. Dutton & Company Miss Marjorie Bowen's latest historical novel "I Will Maintain." The title of a previous

tale by that gifted young lady, "The Viper of Milan," somehow brings to mind the name of Sforza. In the days of that Italian tyrant does Maurice Hewlett lay his "Brazenhead the Great" (Scribners). Captain Brazenhead, an English soldier of fortune, who earns renown at home as well as on the Continent, has about the longest thirst, sword, and nose ever heard of in the annals of swashbuckling. Nasally and martially he bears some kinship to the redoubtable Cyrano de Bergerac—but de Bergerac neither masqueraded as a cardinal nor stole a horse. Peter Vibart, too, roamed the road on adventure bent. It was a hundred years ago in rural England, that he wandered and chatted and laughed and fought and



GEORGE CRAM COOK

(Author of "The Chasm")

loved—this impecunious young scholar who had a winning way that enchanted the beautiful Charmian forever. One hopes to hear again from Jeffery Farnol, who wrote said story of "The Broad Highway" (Little, Brown).

"Denry the Audacious" (Dutton), an ingenious rogue who always tries to escape the consequences of his impudent tricks, and at last becomes Mayor of his town,—with promise of reform,—entirely succeeds in his and Arnold Bennett's mission "to cheer everybody up." "Conrad in Quest of His Youth" (Kennerley) among Bohemian circles of London and elsewhere, likewise affords plentiful exhilaration, although, be it added, Leonard Merrick's sprightly writings are not *pour les jeunes filles*. Eden Phillpotts furnishes another of his colorful and powerful Dartmoor novels, "Demeter's Daughter" (Lane); Robert Hichens a piece of occultism dealing with dual personality, "The

Dweller on the Threshold" (Century); and Putnam Weale a volume informing one of missionary matters in China, "The Unknown God" (Dodd, Mead).

"The Chasm," by George Cram Cook (Stokes), is a many-sided novel, first of all a love story. The heroine, clever and beautiful daughter of a wealthy American manufacturer, has two suitors—one a cultivated Russian nobleman, the other a refreshing young Socialist. Both men have strong natures and the battle between them in her heart is an intensely personal one.

"The Grain of Dust" (Appleton) is a posthumous novel of the late David Graham Phillips. The focus of interest is the character of the pretty typist with whom a prominent lawyer becomes so infatuated that he neglects his clients and goes downhill, eventually marrying her and then ascending again. The girl is a peculiar mixture of seriousness and futility; but the author fails to present her as a plausible or even intelligible creation. The story is written with much vigor and the author's characteristic spleen.

A story somewhat too long and too newspaperish in its phraseology, but with a number of real live characters in it, is "Queed" (Houghton, Mifflin) by Henry Sydnor Harrison. The author tells how a product of abstract book learning is gradually "made human and has his eyes opened to life and the world around him."

"The Wife Decides," by Sydney Wharton (Dillingham), is a social romance intended to point out the misery caused by divorce lightly undertaken. The author, while exhibiting crudities of style, evidently possesses a sense of character and an ability to tell a story, which he should cultivate.



Mlle. AUDOUX, AUTHOR OF "MARIE-CLAIRE,"
IN HER GARRET WORKSHOP

TRANSLATIONS

As Mr. Wells' book outranks all the others here mentioned in respect of intellectual strength, so does Marguerite Audoux's stand above them all in artistic effect. Her "Marie-Claire" (Doran) constitutes a sort of half fictitious autobiographical segment. The narrator tells how she was reared by nuns, became a farmhand, did domestic work, returned to the convent as kitchen maid, and then, at eighteen, started for Paris to seek other occupation. Here the account stops. And here too seems to lie some proof that the newly famous Parisian author-sempstress—for Mlle. Audoux used to make her living by needlework—is not quite so simple a soul as her discoverers have made out. Her ending of the volume points inevitably to the preconceived design of a sequel. Besides, the spirit of the book is by no means unsophisticated. Neither would one regard the "recollection" of so many exact details dating back to the fifth year of life as especially spontaneous. And no narrative could be composed but with extreme care and deliberation which showed such a perfect balance in all things, such skillful intermingling of the realistic and the idyllic, such fine, true tempering of both emotion and expression, such chastity and clarity, purity and perspicuity of language. Perhaps concentration replaced deliberation. At any rate, one has in "Marie-Claire" a literary work of art, which,—though it will go unenjoyed by many, viewing the story's lack of liveliness,—will delight those who value a piece of writing for its own sake, without regard to the actual or imagined character of its author.

The discerning firm of Doran publishes also Signor Fogazzaro's posthumous romance called



THE STRIKING COVER OF FOGAZZARO'S POSTHUMOUS NOVEL, "LEILA"

"Leila." The eminent Modernist is said to have intended it as a recantation. The Macmillan Company issues a novel that admirably describes the self-making of a hard-headed, coarse-minded Holsteiner. His materialism in some degree recalls "One Way Out," at once a less complex and less analytical conception, however, than Frenssen's "Klaus Hinrich Baas." Gaston Leroux's "Phantom of the Opera" (Bobbs-Merrill) affords a different kind of entertainment altogether. With the aforementioned famous lyric theater as place of action, it provides all the gasps and thrills a devotee of "ghost stories" could possibly ask for. "The Phantom of the Opera" belongs to the genus "Best Seller,"—and is one.

OTHER RECENT NOVELS

A chronology of the lives of certain wealthy and sophisticated suburban New Yorkers entitled "Robert Kimberly," by Frank H. Spearman (Scribners), contains characters that live, but one is tempted to ask what was the use?

"She Buildeth Her House," by Will L. Comfort

(Lippincott), tells of New York literary and theatrical people, and embodies some glowing descriptive writing, particularly a long account of the eruption of Mount Pelée.

A little "Victorian historical perspective" is "Bassett: A Village Chronicle," by S. G. Tallentyre (Moffat, Yard). Bassett is a typical English community of seventy years ago, which the author has described with much skill and spirit.

In "The Last Battle Ground" Dr. Margaret S. Organ has written a careful, powerful appeal for total abstinence, in the form of a love story (G. T. Long, New York). The characters are made to voice the opinions of the author on the question of alcoholic stimulants. The ethical tone is high, even if the point of view is somewhat priggishly put forward.

The chief character in "How Leslie Loved," by Anne Warner (Little, Brown), is a young and charming American widow in Europe. She visits country houses in England and in Germany, she stays in Paris, and generally she enjoys herself, besides helping to brighten life for many other people.

THE NEW BOOKS

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCES

Next month the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of the author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin" will be celebrated. This lends particular timeliness to the appearance of the story of Mrs. Stowe's life,¹ by her son, Charles Edward Stowe, and her grandson, Lyman Beecher Stowe, which has just appeared. The authors of this charmingly written volume have not followed the usual method employed in biographies, that is, the chronological one. They have told the story of the dramatic career of this extraordinary woman as though she was the heroine of a novel. There are many intimate revelations still fresh in the memory of her son which have never before been committed to writing, but which add to the fascination of this book. There are a number of illustrations, one of which we reproduce herewith.

Once in a while, in this age which prides itself so much upon its skill in demolishing reputations, we come upon some writer with a constructive pen who rescues a great name from undeserved reproach. Professor William Cleaver Wilkinson, of the University of Chicago, poet, critic, and writer, has written a volume of historical essays, the chief one of which is devoted to the vindication of Daniel Webster.² This statesman, Professor Wilkinson thinks, should be praised, not blamed, for his famous Seventh of March Speech, and for his support of the fugitive slave law. Webster, moreover, though not faultless, was a pure and good man in his private character, by no means, Professor Wilkinson insists, the intemperate man he is popularly misconceived to have been.

Just before his death, the late John La Farge handed to Mr. Royal Cortissoz, a friend of twenty years' standing, a vast amount of notes and

memoranda, reminiscences, and hitherto unpublished sketches, for biographical purposes. This material, Mr. Cortissoz, who is himself a well-known critic of art and literature, has embodied in a brilliantly written, intimate study of La Farge.³ The volume is illustrated with reproductions in photogravure.

A series of intimate, frank talks on the theater, with some exceedingly interesting reminiscences of theater folk in this country and abroad, which

¹ John La Farge. By Royal Cortissoz. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 268 pp., ill. \$1.



From the Centennial Biography of Harriet Beecher Stowe

HARRIET BEECHER STOWE IN WAR TIME

(From a photograph taken in 1862)

¹ Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe. By Charles Edward Stowe and Lyman Beecher Stowe. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 313 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² Daniel Webster: A Vindication. With Other Historical Essays. By Professor William Cleaver Wilkinson. Funk & Wagnalls Company. 419 pp. \$1.25.

originally appeared in the form of a number of articles in a magazine, have been collected by Mr. Daniel Frohman, and published in a book, which he has entitled "Memories of a Manager."¹ Mr. Frohman makes no attempt to give a literary presentment of ideas and criticisms of the stage and its people, but merely a statement of facts, incidents and experiences of stage life, he tells us, and some random observations, the result of twenty-five years of theater management. The book is copiously illustrated. It also has an appendix consisting of lists of names and casts of players in noteworthy productions.

A new addition to the already voluminous literature about the Imperial family of Germany comes to us from the pen of an Englishman who was born in Berlin, and lived many years in the German capital, while his father was engaged in teaching seamanship to Prussian naval cadets. Mr. E. A. Brayley Hodgetts, who has already written a work on "The Court of Russia in the Nineteenth Century," entitles this present volume "The House of the Hohenzollern, Two Centuries of Berlin Court Life."² Mr. Brayley Hodgetts was impelled in writing this book by the laudable motive of making Germany better known to England and Englishmen. The volume is illustrated with portraits.

Once more, this time by a distinguished London barrister, the famous, or infamous Captain Kidd

¹ *Memories of a Manager*. By Daniel Frohman. Doubleday, Page & Co. 235 pp., ill. \$1.

² *The House of the Hohenzollern*. By E. A. Brayley Hodgetts. E. P. Dutton & Co. 415 pp., ill. \$5.



LADY JOHN RUSSELL AND HER ELDEST SON
(From a miniature by Thorburn, 1844. Frontispiece from "Lady John Russell")



DANIEL FROHMAN

(The veteran theatrical manager whose "Memories" have just appeared)

has been tried at the bar of public opinion and acquitted. The whilom pirate, if we are to believe Sir Cornelius Neale Dalton, in "The Real Captain Kidd,"³ was no pirate, but a conscientious and unlucky captain. Moreover—think of it, ye gods!—there is no buried treasure. Sir Cornelius has a mildly entertaining style, and the reader is convinced that he is setting forth historic verity.

A memoir of Lady John Russell,⁴ wife of the English Prime Minister, with selections from her diaries and correspondence, has been edited by Desmond MacCarthy and Agatha Russell. Lady Russell lived until 1898, and the span of her life covered many important political events in British and world history. Her life after marriage coincided closely with her husband's public career, and many of her letters, as printed in this volume, will be shown to have had a significant influence in political events in which he took part. There are a number of illustrations, some of them in color.

There are very few crowned heads, if any there are, whose personal reminiscences would appeal to as large a circle of readers as those of her Majesty Queen Elizabeth of Roumania, known to literature as Carmen Sylva. These reminiscences have at last appeared under the general title "From Memory's Shrine."⁵ The translation from the German has been done, at her Majesty's special desire, by her former secretary, Edith Hopkirk. The book is illustrated appropriately. Carmen Sylva writes exceedingly well, and her life story is full of human graces and virtues.

³ *The Real Captain Kidd*. By Sir Cornelius Neale Dalton. Duffield & Co. 335 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ *Lady John Russell*. Edited by Desmond MacCarthy and Agatha Russell. John Lane Company. 325 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁵ *From Memory's Shrine*. By Carmen Sylva. Translated from the German by Edith Hopkirk. Lippincott. 271 pp., ill. \$2.50.



CARMEN SYLVA

(Frontispiece "From Memory's Shrine," noticed on preceding page)

AGRICULTURE AND OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE

The Home Correspondence School of Springfield, Mass., publishes for its agricultural course a comprehensive three-volume work by Professor William P. Brooks,¹ of the Massachusetts State Agricultural College. The first volume deals with "Soils and How to Treat Them," the second is devoted to "Fertilizers and Farm Crops," and the third treats of "Animal Husbandry." This is a helpful and valuable set of books to any one taking up the study of agriculture. Each volume contains a vast amount of information presented in a clear and simple manner. The volumes go into detail on the subject of soils and their treatment, the various tools and their uses, the different kinds of fertilizers, their composition and methods of handling; farm crops, and their cultivation and value. The volume on animal husbandry describes the various breeds of horses, cattle, sheep, hogs, and poultry, and how to feed and care for them. A considerable section of the third volume is devoted to dairy husbandry and all that relates to that subject.

The fact that farming is a business and must be conducted on business lines is becoming increas-

ingly apparent in these days of scientific management. To the busy farmer, used to working outdoors, it may be irksome to keep accounts, but some form of bookkeeping, however simple, must be adopted to enable him to know just where his profit or his loss comes in, and how he stands at any particular time. One of the most satisfactory treatises on this subject of farm accounting is by Professor J. A. Bexell,² of the Oregon Agricultural College. The book is divided into four parts,— "Financial Accounts," "Cost Accounts and Special Records," "Business Organization, Correspondence, and Forms," and "Useful Tables." Three systems of bookkeeping are explained,— single entry, modified double entry, and full double entry. A liberal supply of exercises and illustration lessons for each method is provided. Professor Bexell's book is published by the Home Correspondence School of Springfield, Mass., which also issues a binder³ containing a complete set of forms with printed headings for the various farm and household accounts.

A volume that goes somewhat in detail into the science of plant and animal nutrition, though not in technical language, is "The Feeding of Crops and Stock,"⁴ by A. D. Hall, Director of the Rothamsted Experimental Station, England. This is a general introduction to the science of growing crops

and feeding animals, outlining the theory of nutrition, first of the plant, then of the animal. The book is intended to give the student of agriculture a general framework of ideas before he enters on a more detailed study of agricultural chemistry, and for the practical farmer, also, who wants to learn the processes by which his crops and stock make their growth. Among the topics treated are: "What the plant is made of," "the work of the leaf and the root," composition of the plant, origin and nature and composition of soils, foods and their utilization by the animal, fertilizers, milk, butter, and cheese.

"Fundamentals of Agriculture,"⁵ edited by James Edward Halligan, chemist in charge at the Louisiana State Experiment Station, covers practically the whole subject of agriculture. The chapters have been contributed by experts in each particular field, and treat of the soil, fertilizers, farm crops, live stock and dairying, feeds and feeding, trees and the garden, plant diseases, insects and

² Farm Accounting and Business Methods. By J. A. Bexell. The Home Correspondence School, Springfield, Mass. 161 pp., ill. \$1.25.

³ Bexell's Loose Leaf Binder (with complete sets of forms with printed headings). The Home Correspondence School, Springfield, Mass. \$2.

⁴ The Feeding of Crops and Stocks. By A. D. Hall. Dutton Co. 298 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ Fundamentals of Agriculture. By J. E. Halligan. D. C. Heath & Co. 492 pp., ill.

¹ Agriculture. 3 vols. Soils, Farm Crops, Animal Husbandry. By William P. Brooks. The Home Correspondence School, Springfield, Mass. 856 pp., ill.

birds, and miscellaneous topics. Each chapter consists of a number of sections dealing with the subdivisions of the subject. The editor's idea in making this book was to present the fundamentals of agriculture in a satisfactory way and supply the student with the best information obtainable. An appendix contains a useful list of Government bulletins, farm books and periodicals, and statistical and analytical tables on live stock, crops, feed, and fertilizers.

"The Practical Country Gentleman"¹ by Edward K. Parkinson, is "a handbook for the owner of a country estate, large or small." It is a handy little volume containing much useful information for the man who wishes to make the farming section, as distinguished from the residential or "park" section of the estate, yield something more than the mere fun of farming. Farm buildings, with plans, the question of water supply, the kind of stock to buy—horses, cows, pigs, fowls—and how to feed and care for them, crops, fertilizers, and tools needed,—all these are covered. Attention is also given to the marketing of farm products, winter work in glass houses, and the cultivation of high-priced specialties. The author intends his book as a help to the inexperienced in avoiding some of the stumbling blocks that often prove so discouraging.

Laura Rose is a demonstrator and lecturer in dairying at the Ontario Agricultural College at Guelph, Ontario. She has devoted the past fifteen years to promoting agricultural interests, especially dairying. She has done much farmer's institute work in Canada, organizing many women's institutes in the Dominion, and for three seasons has lectured on dairying in New York State. All this while she has been gathering material for her book entitled "Farm Dairying,"² a readable little volume giving in simple, concise form just the sort of information about dairying which any one interested in the subject would wish to know. Beginning with dairy agriculture in general, the author takes up such topics as the cow stable, the cow, the various breeds, calving, feeding, fodder crops, silo and silage, water supply, milk and milking, butter making, the milk trade, cheese making, dairy by-products, and diseases of the cow and their treatment, beside a great many other things naturally connected with the subject of dairying. The book is amply supplied with diagrams and photographic illustrations. It may be obtained from the author direct by mail for \$1.35.

A bright little booklet in green and red, is entitled "The Boy Gardeners."³ The boys themselves, in boyish language, but in a thoroughly business-like way, tell about their gardening operations both as to the field work and the financial conduct of the business. Attractive illustrations show the various stages of their enterprise. The authors naively explain: "We had this book printed to answer questions about our work and also to sell and make money"—so you may buy the little booklet for fifteen cents.

Among recent writers on garden topics, none is more favorably known than Mrs. Helena Ruthersford Ely, the author of "A Woman's Hardy Garden," and other works in the same field. In the little volume entitled "The Practical Flower Garden,"⁴ Mrs. Ely gives the results of her experience

in gardening during the last five years, in caring for the grass and evergreens; arranging flowers to secure constant color effects; raising plants and trees from seeds; and the use of fertilizers. The book contains a most interesting chapter on the wild garden, and concludes with a sort of running catalogue of the shrubs, vines, plants and bulbs which have been successfully grown by Mrs. Ely.

In "A White Paper Garden,"⁵ Sara Andrew Shafer gives expression to a series of reflections inspired by the successive months of the year. These suggestive and entertaining pages are illustrated from photographs by Frances and Mary Allen.

A timely work of a semi-technical nature is a new volume on "Shade Trees in Towns and Cities,"⁶ by William Solotaroff, who is secretary and superintendent of the East Orange, N. J., Shade Tree Commission. In this work full directions are given regarding the selection, planting and care of shade trees as applied to the art of tree decoration; their diseases and remedies; and their municipal control and supervision. The planting of trees for ornament and shade has been, during the past few years, a matter of immediate interest in many American cities. In the State of New Jersey alone there are now thirty-one towns and cities that have shade tree departments. The Shade Tree Commission of East Orange, of which the author is secretary, was organized in the spring of 1904, and was the third in the State. In 1907 Pennsylvania passed a shade-tree law modeled after the New Jersey statute, and within the last three or four years the cities of Buffalo, St. Louis, Chicago, and New Orleans have established shade-tree departments. For all such organizations this book is a needed manual.

Dr. L. H. Bailey's little book on "The Country-Life Movement in the United States"⁷ is a useful and timely contribution to the present discussion of many problems which concern the future of our rural population. Dr. Bailey makes a sharp distinction between this movement and the so-called back-to-the-land agitation which he regards as primarily a city or town impulse expressing the desire of "townspeople to escape, or of cities to find relief, or of real estate dealers to sell land." He is also skeptical as to the propaganda to decrease the cost of living by sending more persons to the land on the assumption that more products will thereby be secured for the world's markets. Dr. Bailey is not particularly eager to discourage this agitation, but the more fundamental problems, in his view, are those which concern the people who now comprise rural society. In other words, he believes that the open country must solve its own problems.

In this connection we welcome a new edition of Dr. Bailey's "The Outlook to Nature,"⁸ in which the size of the volume has been somewhat reduced, since more of the incidental subjects are treated more fully in other books now combined with it to make the so-called Rural Outlook Set.

SOCIOLOGY AND POLITICS

A great deal of popular attention has been drawn to the magazine and newspaper articles, in which, during the past year or so, Miss Molly Elliot

¹ The Practical Country Gentleman. By Edward K. Parkinson. A. C. McClurg. 189 pp., ill. \$1.25.

² Farm Dairying. By Laura Rose. A. C. McClurg. 298 pp., ill. \$1.25.

³ The Boy Gardeners. The Boys' Garden Co. 44 pp., ill. 15 cents.

⁴ The Practical Flower Garden. By Helena Ruthersford Ely. Macmillan. 304 pp., ill. \$2.

⁵ A White Paper Garden. By Sara Andrew Shafer. A. C. McClurg. 292 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁶ Shade Trees in Towns and Cities. By William Solotaroff. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 287 pp., ill. \$3.

⁷ The Country Life Movement. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan. 220 pp. \$1.25.

⁸ The Outlook to Nature. By L. H. Bailey. Macmillan. 195 pp. \$1.25.

Seawell has vigorously expressed her opposition to the granting of the franchise to women. Undoubtedly this question is one of the most absorbing and important now engaging the attention of the civilized world. Miss Seawell's recent book—"The Ladies' Battle"¹—is frankly, vigorously, and in many parts, convincingly, anti-suffrage. It is perhaps the first really comprehensive book on the anti side of the argument. Her thesis may be summed up in the second sentence of the first chapter of the book: "the suffragists . . . while they propose a stupendous governmental change, have little knowledge of the fundamentals of government, the evolution of representation, the history of politics, or the genesis, scope, and meaning of suffrage."

Ever since the famous Italian Lombroso, by his epoch-making work on the abnormal man, raised criminology to the dignity of a science, there have been many works of independent investigators and thinkers on the subject, who, however, have generally retraced their steps to the monumental work of the Italian student. The two noteworthy volumes on the social causes of crime and its physical and mental, as well as moral effects, have recently appeared. In the "Modern Criminal Science Series," which is being published under the auspices of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, Little, Brown & Company have brought out an English translation (by Henry P. Horton) of Lombroso's "Crime: Its Causes and Remedies."² In this volume Lombroso himself declares he has attempted to complete and systematize all reforms that deal with the criminal "in accordance with the data of biography and sociology." There is an introduction to the volume by Dr. Maurice Parmelee, of the University of Missouri. The second volume is entitled "Criminal Man."³ It is a summary of the classifications of Lombroso by his daughter Gina, Madam Ferrero.

A MANUAL OF THE FLYING MACHINE

"In less than a year from the date when Bleriot flew over the English Channel,"—says Waldemar Kaempffert in "The New Art of Flying,"⁴ "the actual sales of flying machines outnumbered the actual sales of automobiles in the first year of their commercial development." It seems but yesterday when the first few automobiles lumbered heavily along their uncertain way. To-day they are everywhere and used for every possible purpose. Will it be the same with flying machines? Perhaps. At any rate, the art of flying is advancing so rapidly that new books on the subject appear at frequent intervals. Mr. Kaempffert's volume is a popular and interesting treatment of the subject, beginning with the gliders of Lilienthal and Chanute and ending very properly with a chapter on the future of flying. The author takes up some points that are perhaps especially puzzling to the uninitiated, as, for instance, "Why flying machines fly," "How an aeroplane is balanced," "Making a turn," and "Aeroplane motors." Although intended chiefly to explain in a simple manner the dynamics of the flying machine, the book does not overlook the romantic aspect of aviation.

¹ The Ladies' Battle. By Molly Elliot Seawell. Macmillan Co. 119 pp. \$1.

² Crime: Its Causes and Remedies. By Cesare Lombroso. Little, Brown & Co. 471 pp. \$4.50.

³ Criminal Man. By Gina Lombroso Ferrero. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 322 pp., ill. \$2.

⁴ The New Art of Flying. By Waldemar Kaempffert. Dodd, Mead & Co. 291 pp., ill. \$1.50.

THE FINE ARTS

"Schools of Painting,"⁵ by Mary Innes, with a chapter on American schools of painting and further additional material by Charles de Kay, presents an historical survey of the entire period of modern art, which period is estimated to be about five hundred years. Miss Innes writes with exceeding mastery of the art of swift, pictorial detail. Her pen never lags and in her explanations of the technicalities of a picture she never loses sight of the soul of the work or its essential meaning in the history of men and events. The text of this volume progresses in its delineation of painting through the periods of the various schools, from the early Christian period, when the legends of the saints and martyrs served the artist's brush, down to the awakening of art in Italy—Giotto, Fra Angelico, Raphael, Da Vinci, Michael Angelo and on to the Venetian, Flemish, Spanish and French masters. The English landscape painters who followed swiftly upon Wordsworth and Coleridge,—Cozens, Turner, and Constable,—furnish a chapter that is an inspiration and a delight. We behold them as a part of the great revolt from the deadly rationalism of the eighteenth century, as pioneers of the "intimate relations that exist between man and nature," and as the first men to translate into paint the significance of great emotion. The chapter on American schools of painting by Mr. de Kay is sufficiently vital and comprehensive to stimulate a general interest in American pictures. He has not forgotten to do justice to men who, like Louis Loeb, the illustrator turned symbolist-painter, died before the promise of their youth could be fulfilled by the work of a ripe maturity. Emphasis is placed on the fact that America is holding her own in the realm of art.

"Let music be the first of all languages and rhythm, and secondly tone; but not vice-versa, and moreover to strive to force music into the consciousness of the hearer and create there those impressions so admirable and so much praised by the ancients." Thus wrote Caccini in his "Nuove Musiche," in the year 1601, and thus, in other words, writes Mr. W. J. Henderson in a scholarly and authoritative study of early Italian music entitled "Forerunners of Italian Opera."⁶ We are guided through the crudities of medieval music in the age when the lyric drama rising from three sources,—the aristocracy, religion, and the people,—divided into the secular music-drama and the religious or liturgical music-drama. While some attention is paid to German and French plays, the greater part of the volume is devoted to Italy. Music lovers and students will find delight in Mr. Henderson's analysis of the fifteenth-century music, the music of the period of Jacopo Sannazaro and his Arcadia, when "the solemn ecclesiastic prose of the world was turned into happy, pagan song, when the very music of the church went out into the world and became earthly in the madrigals of love." Considerable space is devoted to Polizanno's "Favola di Orfeo," an early Italian dramatic poem of 434 lines, whose classic story has been a favorite with musical composers down to Gluck.

"Sacred Symbols in Art"⁷ is a carefully prepared handbook which interprets the symbolism in

⁵ Schools of Painting. Mary Innes. Edited by Charles de Kay. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 408 pp., ill. \$2.50.

⁶ Forerunners of Italian Opera. Mr. W. J. Henderson. Henry Holt & Co. 243 pp. \$1.25 net.

⁷ Sacred Symbols in Art. Elizabeth Goldsmith. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 283 pp., ill. \$1.75.

religious art. Symbols were used in the early works of art not only as emblems of particular saints and martyrs, but also as an expression of incidents in their lives. Without some knowledge of these symbols much of the significance of religious pictures must necessarily be lost. Just at the present time, when there is such keen interest in the revival of the study of Biblical history, this handbook comes with refreshing interest. Who does not wish to know the beautiful, old legends of the saints,—the stories of St. Agnes and St. Dorothy, St. George and the youthful St. Sebastian? These legends have become a part of our world-literature and their influence has always been for good. The book includes the symbols and legends of the Madonna and a description of the significance of color in religious art, and an alphabetical list of the symbols is given in the fore part of the book. The information is compact, concise; the illustrations are frequent and beautifully reproduced. It can be especially recommended to those who intend to visit European art museums.

LITERATURE

"World Literature"¹ conceived from the English point of view is placed before us in brilliant and epigrammatical style by Richard G. Moulton, Professor of Literature in the University of Chicago. He takes the entire literary field as conceived and understood by the English-speaking peoples and enlarges upon its realization as a unity. Starting with the Hellenic and Hebraic literatures with their sources in the Semitic and Aryan races, he converges them into modern English literature and European culture. The transitions are handled with clever workmanship and great breadth of perspective. The Bible is considered as the autobiography of a spiritual evolution; classic epic and tragedy are arranged in the order of their story to show the unity that carries us across from the Latin and the Greek productions to modernity, to "our sweetest Shakespeare." The crystallization of literary material is explained and the results stated in charts and diagrams. Through the romance of the East, the myths of the Northern Sagas, the lore of China and Japan, Dante, Milton, and Goethe, and on down to Macaulay, Emerson, Saint Beuve, Carlyle, and the Romanticists, runs the world story of English literature. The volume is written alike for the formal student and busy men and women who browse upon learning in moments of leisure. Quite apart from its mass of fact knowledge, it contains an appreciation of the dim ideals that move slowly over the babel of the ages in forms of unchanging beauty, or, in Mr. Moulton's words, "in a series of luminous reflections."

THE PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

A rather unusual theological book, or to be more accurate, religious treatise, in which the author tries to examine dispassionately all that the Scripture has to say concerning life after death is entitled "The Gospel of the Hereafter."² The author is the Reverend J. Paterson Smyth, who has written a number of books on modern religious problems, and who, it will be remembered, contributed to this REVIEW for May, our article on the "Three Centuries of the English Bible." Dr. Smyth is not



MOLLY ELLIOT SEAWELL

(Author of "The Ladies' Battle;" see opposite page)

afraid to speak with perfect frankness on controverted subjects, nor to admit with as great frankness his ignorance—our ignorance—of so much on which the Bible and other sources of human knowledge are silent. He states clearly what we may assume to know, and with as much clearness admits what we do not know.

A novel, but eminently practical and very useful method of educating young people, in the true sense of the word, on subjects of a more abstract nature than are taught in the schools, has been adopted by Jessie E. Sampter, in her book "The Seekers."³ A number of normal, average boys and girls of fifteen to eighteen years of age get together and frankly give their opinions, and ask such questions as occur to them about God, the world, life, doubt, humanity, immortality, conscience, and other of the great non-physical problems that tax our age. There is a certain clearness of vision and careful touch shown by the author, who was the leader of the group, that makes her conclusions very helpful. She sets her pupils to thinking, as well as to receiving, to quote Professor Josiah Royce, who contributes the preface to the book "they are thus prepared for a variety of future religious and philosophical experiences, and yet they are kept in touch with that love and hope of unity which alone can justify the existence of our very doubts, of our philosophical disputes, and of our modern complications of life."

Helen R. Albee, who has written of craft and garden with practical knowledge, now offers "The Gleam,"⁴ a book of spiritual autobiography. She tells us frankly and simply of her own spiritual groping after truth and of the final peace gained by patient effort and an unswerving fidelity to spiritual ideals. After quoting from a letter of Emerson's to her father, she writes: "There is a Super-

¹ World Literature. R. G. Moulton. Macmillan Co. 502 pp. \$1.75 net.

² The Gospel of the Hereafter. By Rev. J. Paterson Smyth. Fleming H. Revell Co. 224 pp. \$1.

³ The Seekers. By Jessie E. Sampter. New York: Mitchell Kennerley. 302 pp. \$1.25.

⁴ The Gleam. By Helen R. Albee. Henry Holt & Co. 321 pp. \$1.25.

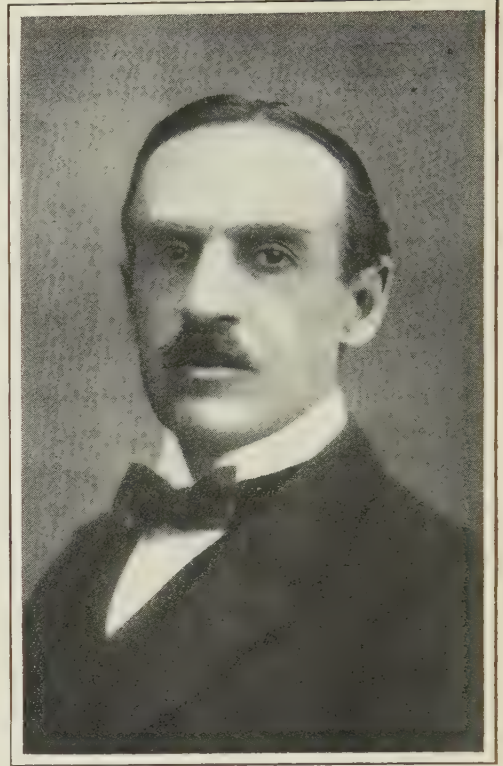
Cadmean alphabet, which when one has learned the characters, he will find as it were secretly inscribed, look where he will, not only in books and temples, but in all waste places and in the dust of the earth. Happy he who can read it, for he will never be lonely or thoughtless again." Mrs. Albee has discovered the key to this alphabet that guides the seeker to a full realization of the spiritual universe. She writes: "Matter is the sacred symbol through which the soul is to be educated. He who would excel in other than common things, who desires to progress until he can use constructive thought power, which transcends physical forces, must obey the requirements of Nature in observing order, economy, utility, beauty and proportion." Mrs. Albee has realized that in order to teach things of good report it is necessary to embody right principles in a record of human life. The greatest thing literature can do for us is to reveal the life of a good and worthy person, who through patience and faith has learned to control environment and destiny.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION

Perhaps the most illuminating articles on the Far East that have recently appeared in any American periodical are those that have been running during the last few months, in *Scribner's*. The author of these articles, Mr. Price Collier, has embodied his observations during a year spent in the Orient in an intensely interesting volume entitled "The West in the East from an American Point of View."¹ Mr. Collier gives special attention in this work to the problems of modern India, and to most Americans his presentation of the difficulties that beset the British Government in that country will have all the charm of novelty. In his discussion of the recent progress made by China and Japan the author imparts sound advice to his own countrymen as to the proper American attitude toward Oriental civilization. On the whole, Mr. Collier has made a useful contribution to our knowledge of Oriental conditions.

Those who are contemplating a trip to Italy could not possibly do better, we take it, than to get a copy of Henry James Forman's "The Ideal Italian Tour,"² to read it thoroughly before starting, to take it with them and reread it on the way. This stimulatingly and charmingly written little volume supplies just the proper mixture of history, art lore, and practical information based on actual experience, that is needed by the traveler. There is an appendix which gives the titles of some useful books on Italy, and a comprehensive and useful index.

Among the recently issued noteworthy books on the Orient by travelers and students, may be mentioned "China's Story in Myth, Legend, Art and Annals,"³ by Professor William Elliot Griffis, which is largely historical; "The Obvious Orient,"⁴ by Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart (of the chair of the Science of Government in Harvard), which is largely a traveler's first impressions of Japan and China and the Philippines, and "Aspects of Islam,"⁵ by Dr. Duncan Black Macdonald, of the University of



PRICE COLLIER

(Author of "The West in the East")

Hartford Seminary, which is largely made up of appreciations of missionary work among the Mohammedan peoples of Asia and Africa.

Noteworthy books of travel and description recently issued include "Cathedrals of Spain,"⁶ by John A. Gade, handsomely illustrated; "Labrador: Its Discovery, Exploration and Development,"⁷ by W. G. Gosling, illustrated; "Across South America,"⁸ by Professor Hiram Bingham (Yale), illustrated from photographs; "Impressions of Mexico with Brush and Pen,"⁹ by Mary Barton, illustrated; "A Summer Flight,"¹⁰ by Frederick A. Bisbee, dealing with a rapid European tour in England and on the continent; "The Face of Manchuria, Korea, and Russian Turkestan,"¹¹ by E. G. Kemp, illustrated in color; "Yosemite Trails,"¹² by J. Smeaton Chase, with illustrations from photographs; "New England,"¹³ edited by George French, illustrated; and "East and West,"¹⁴ by Stanton Davis Kirkham, referring to the Eastern and Western States.

⁶ Cathedrals of Spain. By John A. Gade. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 279 pp., ill. \$5.

⁷ Labrador. By W. G. Gosling. John Lane Co. 573 pp., ill. \$6.

⁸ Across South America. By Hiram Bingham. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 405 pp., ill. \$3.50.

⁹ Impressions of Mexico. By Mary Barton. Macmillan Co. 164 pp., ill. \$3.

¹⁰ A Summer Flight. By Frederick A. Bisbee. Boston: The Murray Press. 370 pp., ill. \$1.

¹¹ The Face of Manchuria, Korea, and Russian Turkestan. By E. G. Kemp. Duffield & Co. 248 pp., ill. \$1.75.

¹² Yosemite Trails. By J. Smeaton Chase. Houghton, Mifflin. 354 pp., ill. \$2.

¹³ New England. Edited by George French. Boston: Chamber of Commerce. 431 pp., ill.

¹⁴ East and West. By Stanton Davis Kirkham. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 280 pp., ill. \$1.75.

¹ The West in the East from an American Point of View. By Price Collier. Scribner's. 534 pp. \$1.50.

² The Ideal Italian Tour. By Henry James Forman. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 413 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ China's Story. By William Elliot Griffis. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 302 pp., ill. \$1.25.

⁴ The Obvious Orient. By Albert Bushnell Hart. Appletons. 367 pp. \$1.50.

⁵ Aspects of Islam. By Duncan B. Macdonald. Macmillan Co. 375 pp. \$1.50.

